

# THE SATURDAY REVIEW

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 2,579 Vol. 99.

1 April 1905.

6d.

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*We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.*

## NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Almost all the daily news under the heading of War has been concerned with peace; the allusions to "unimpeachable sources" and "trustworthy authority" for the negotiation of peace grow more frequent. Previously the tendency to exaggerate the disturbances within Russia has been due principally to the amiable delight in other people's misfortune. To-day, in France even more than England, the disturbances are emphasised because it is felt that they are the most powerful of all peace agents. It is asserted not only that peace was discussed and accepted in principle at a meeting of the Tsar with M. de Witte and Count Lamsdorff but that President Roosevelt of all people has been appointed by the Japanese as peacemaker-in-chief. Probably much the strongest pressure put upon both Governments comes from international finance. The thrifty population of France is thoroughly alarmed at the drop in Russian 4 per cents; and these were bought by those interested in maintaining Russian credit with even more furious zeal than was shown this week by the queues of people fighting outside Parr's Bank for their chance of the Japanese loan.

The idea prevails in S. Petersburg that General Linievitch will give battle to the Japanese and his rather remarkable address to his troops telegraphed to the Tsar on Thursday suggests it. The outposts of the two armies are within twenty miles of each other, and there is reason to believe that the right wing of the Japanese is advancing rapidly to the north, while from Chinese sources comes a report of a Japanese column nearly thirty miles north-east of Si-pin-gai. In any event the Japanese show a determination to keep up the pressure. Though the alleged proclamation that they intend to occupy Harbin in the middle of April is probably a canard, they may well intend to cut off Vladivostok at once. It is already rumoured that the line to Harbin has been cut by Japanese advancing

from Korea and that the Port Arthur siege guns are being transported to that neighbourhood. The Baltic fleet has been sighted 250 miles north-east of Madagascar, and more is likely to be heard of it, as it must be crossing several important trade routes.

If peace is to depend on internal disorder it may be long postponed. In the many little rumours of dissatisfaction and tumult, from Poland, from Finland and even the neighbourhood of S. Petersburg, is no sign of any rising which can compare with the state of agitation in the neighbourhood of the Caucasus, where the concourse of races has established a peculiar position. In Yalta the rioters appear to be in entire command of the situation and no attempt has been made to repress them by the military. The damage to property has been great by arson and looting. Damage to the property of a French colony at Sevastopol is estimated at over £12,000 and the Consul has left. With the exception of the burning of the Zhukoff oil works, which is an unpleasant sign, the disorder, still described in the London press as anarchy and revolution, is chiefly confined to agrarian movements of the peasants, who are persuaded of the landowners' hostility to the Tsar. At Birjutsk the estate of Prince Jussupoff was looted on Thursday, and the property of German settlers at Caseno has been appropriated by the peasants. The Finnish petition to the Tsar against the unpopular military edict passed in 1901 has been granted.

Interest in the situation in Morocco, hitherto languid, was stimulated to acuteness by Wednesday's debate in the Reichstag. The situation had three facts: M. Saint-René-Taillandier was at Fez and in spite of much talking was not making progress. Indeed one of the French papers asserts that compensation is demanded of France for previous acts at Figig and on the Algerian frontier, and this opposition was growing as the visit of the German Emperor to Tangier approached. Coincidentally with this definite steps, it was known, were being taken by Germany to get trade concessions on the Atlantic coast, principally at Mogador in South Morocco. In addition it is freely suggested, though the French press has rather avoided the suggestion, that German diplomats at Fez have been all along the original cause of the French ambassador's difficulty.

At the time of the Anglo-French agreement Germany seems to have adopted a non-committal attitude in regard to the bargain as to Egypt and Morocco. She was "semi-officially informed" and apparently raised no objection. But this abstention from immediate opposition, much emphasised by the German socialists, did not involve any very definite obligations. Germany "seeks no territories", but her commercial interests in Morocco, she claims, are so great and are so rapidly developing that she cannot hold aloof in the present state of the country; and if she thinks an independent Sultan more likely than a regulated Sultan to further her commercial opportunities, she will naturally become an enthusiastic champion of Moorish independence. The Moorish people, if not with Germany, are against France, and might be influenced by the mere presence of the Kaiser.

Perhaps rather sooner than he had intended Count von Bülow was forced to drive the question into the open. In answer to a speech of Herr Bebel on Wednesday he concluded a vague and rather evasive speech with the plain short statement: "We intend to open communications with the Sultan of Morocco forthwith". Not even Cromwell's dark and labyrinthine addresses to Parliament ever concluded more brusquely. Count von Bülow's particular organ explains the meaning of this with no attempt at concealing the issue: "Our economic interests . . . entitle us to reject the policy of monopoly and absorption which aims at making Morocco an exclusively French territory with a closed door". On the same day a telegram from Morocco gave the information that the chief Raisuli had been invited with his supporters to meet the Kaiser at Tangier. It adds the usual note of comicality to the situation that Kaid Sir Harry Maclean has been appointed commander of the Sultan's forces to receive the Kaiser.

The Senate and President Roosevelt are now, as they say in their country, toeing the line. With a most attractive note of mastery in his best vein President Roosevelt has settled the San Domingo difficulty by himself, pending the Senate's fractious delay. The Senate describes the executive act of the President as the formation of a protectorate over San Domingo. This is perhaps no great exaggeration. The whole of the management of the public funds is forthwith to be put into the hands of American officials who are to be backed in the exercise of their duties by the American fleet. On an island so shaped this control of the Customs at the harbours is after all not much removed from a protectorate. The thoroughness of the arrangement is the best testimony to President Roosevelt's common sense. But it is tolerably certain that irritation at the exercise of a perhaps unconstitutional power will finally induce the Senate to reject the proposed measure root and branch.

A discussion in the Canadian Senate on Wednesday last deserves more attention in this country than we fear it will receive. Speaker after speaker got up to protest with patriotic fervour that the withdrawal of the garrisons from Esquimaux and Halifax was the most serious breach in the relations of Canada and Great Britain which had been permitted for years. It is curious that the speakers attributed the withdrawal to the initiative of the British Government which was twitted with applying the term "Little Englander" to its opponents. We believe that the suggestion came from the Government of Sir Wilfrid Laurier. But if it could be shown that any poor idea of economy prompted the War Office to take this step, therein the War Office would have more than justified its unenviable reputation. One speaker even alleged that the withdrawal was the work of Admiral Fisher.

The return of the British Mission from Kabul marks another advance in the policy which aims at making safe the various land frontiers of India. Beyond a general report that satisfactory conclusions have been reached, no details of the arrangements now made have come out. It is possible that they may not be published in full. The Durand agreement of 1893 has not even yet

been entirely disclosed and the rather vague compact made with the late Amir Abdur Rahman, when he was placed on the throne, still contains all that is publicly known of the main conditions of the alliance. Secrecy has its drawbacks as well as its advantages. A declared understanding which would render certain specified acts of aggression a *casus belli* would be the best safeguard against infractions of the neutrality of Afghanistan by a foreign Power. Besides political negotiations and the discussion of measures to strengthen the military position of the Amir, it is believed that one object of the Mission was to secure better means of communication and to establish freer commercial relations between India and the Amir's dominions.

If Imperial communications are one means to closer Imperial unity—and no doubt they are—a considerable step forward has been made this week. An agreement has at last been arrived at between the Postmasters-General of Great Britain and Australia under which postage to and from the Commonwealth will be reduced, and Mr. Hewitt, the Indian Member of Commerce and Industry, foreshadows an early lowering of the telegraph rate between England and India to 2s. a word for ordinary and 8d. for press messages. Australia unfortunately cannot yet adopt the 1d. per half-ounce rate, but no longer opposes the desire of Great Britain to do so. The explanation is that the internal rate in the Commonwealth is still 2d. and it was deemed impossible to make the rate to England cheaper than the rate from New South Wales to South Australia. The Australian people need but realise that they have to pay one hundred per cent. more per letter than their correspondents on this side in order to start an agitation in favour of equality.

The debate on the Concordat was opened in the French Chamber at the end of last week by M. Deschanel. When it was resumed on Tuesday the speeches had an air of set preparation, as if the speakers were demonstrating for conscience sake with none of the heat of political persuasion. The details of the Bill were scarcely alluded to. Every opponent devoted himself to the general injustice and the danger of breaking with the past. But enough was said to show that M. Briand's Bill is likely to find its most serious obstacle in the question of the disposal of the chapels and churches. The extremists talk, as the Puritans once talked in England and some of the nonconformists in Wales still talk, of "stabling their horses in the cathedral stalls". M. Deschanel mentioned that 95 per cent. of the French people were Roman Catholics. Has such a majority no power to make a protest effective against so insolent a theft as these extremists propose?

The fiscal farce has been going on briskly in the House of Commons. Neither side will cavil at this description of the proceedings, for each side thinks the other plays the clown, or the fool. But it is a sorry jest in any case. How long can the House stand being played with in this way? Motions carried unanimously and meaning nothing, unopposed condemnation of the Government and nothing happening! One point in the matter stands out and cannot be disputed. In view of the Prime Minister's repeated and unvaried declaration that fiscal reform will not be dealt with during this Parliament, all motions bearing upon it are mere abstract resolutions. There is no objection to an abstract resolution in itself; and the Prime Minister has taken more than one resolution on fiscal questions quite seriously this session. But iterated resolutions on the same question in the same session is a process not recognised by Parliament. And this justifies the Prime Minister in ignoring Mr. Walton's motion against retaliation, and others of the kind.

"The plan of non-attendance", as an historian has called it, was well known in the eighteenth century. It suited very well the lazier, dignified Whigs of the Rockingham type till Burke came to master his patrons and to point out the folly of the policy. But in those days it was only resorted to by the Opposition.



After all Mr. Balfour might do better if instead of emulating Rockingham he emulated North. North cultivated the gift of attending in an exemplary way at the House of Commons, and yet sleeping soundly whenever tedious and unimportant speakers were up. He could always be conveniently nudged when a formidable opponent was up or some Wedderburn or Rigby—in the right mood—on his own side.

There has been much discussion during the week in the papers, and much talk, about Lord Salisbury's attitude to Mr. Chamberlain's policy of preferential tariffs. Mr. Chamberlain in his letter on the position in Greenwich made some allusions, which the present Lord Salisbury saw fit to dispute in a letter to the "Times", informing the world that his "father profoundly dissented from Mr. Chamberlain's policy". Mr. Chamberlain followed this by citations from speeches, to which Mr. Asquith rejoined with fuller citations, while Sir Michael Hicks-Beach entered the next day with a pious opinion that Lord Salisbury, whom he knew well, could never have supported any such policy; and at Greenwich on Tuesday Lord Hugh Cecil declared that there was no doubt as to his father's disagreement with Mr. Chamberlain as to the taxation of food; at the same time he regretted that "others" had not observed the same reticence on the matter as the Free Fooders had.

If by "others" Lord Hugh meant his eldest brother as well as Mr. Chamberlain, we are not inclined to quarrel with his regret. It would have been better to leave Lord Salisbury out of the controversy altogether. "He sleeps well." There is almost an indecency in disturbing the great dead to make them join in our mundane wranglings. Those who have been long dead, of course, become part of the common stock of history: we cite them, as we criticise them, without compunction. But as we refrain from nice, too often nasty, criticism of those who have but just left us, so should we shrink from dragging them into our discussions. This, however, must be said in fairness to Mr. Chamberlain: his allusions were to Lord Salisbury's public utterances. They have become part of the common property of politics and their use in controversy hardly introduces the personal element. They are at any rate legitimate evidence. The present Lord Salisbury, on the other hand, took his stand on what he knew of his father's opinion from private and domestic association with him. That was hardly fair fighting, and such testimony, if only it could be submitted to an impartial judge, would be excluded as not admissible.

Whatever may have been Lord Salisbury's views as privately expressed, his public utterances seem to us to show that on purely economic grounds he considered the present system, though it was not free trade, the best for this country; but none the less he was convinced it might be to our advantage, political and international, to impose import duties for purposes of specific retaliation, and he saw no insuperable objection to discriminating by tariff in favour of the Empire as against foreign countries. As to Mr. Asquith's point that Lord Salisbury contemplated such discrimination only as an instalment of free trade within the Empire, Mr. Chamberlain might say he does the same. It does seem to us that Lord Salisbury looked to a reduction of colonial tariffs against this country rather than an increase of colonial tariffs against foreign countries. That is not saying he would do nothing if he could not get free trade throughout the Empire. Mr. Asquith's construction is larger than the words warrant. As to duties on imported food Lord Salisbury was opposed to them, as Mr. Balfour is, on political grounds. He did not think public opinion would allow any Government to impose them.

Lord Hugh Cecil in his annual address at Greenwich dealt with Mr. Chamberlain's famous letter. He was, of course, in a strong position in that, preference being at present no part of the official party programme, while he himself had not opposed retaliation and had not joined the Opposition in any vote of censure on the Government, there was really no party case against him.

Moreover the Whips supported him. Technically, it must be admitted, Mr. Chamberlain was out of court. Greenwich illustrates the unreal position Mr. Balfour's compromise was certain to bring about. The issue which the country regards as the real one is not technically in issue between parties at all: hence these complications. We confess we had rather Mr. Chamberlain had not intervened in this case. Lord Hugh Cecil of all men in public life, if he must be fought, must be fought squarely. We heartily endorse Lord Hugh's sentiments as to a member's independence. If he honestly disagrees with his leaders, he ought not to hide his difference, and if the difference is vital, it is to his credit to leave the party. But at present Lord Hugh is technically entitled to argue that he has no acute difference from his party.

Mr. Arnold-Forster had to face a difficult situation, partly of his own making, partly incidental to the position of any War Secretary, when he made his statement on the motion for going into Committee of Supply for the army estimates. He had to confess to a degree of failure; his sanguine prophecies have not been fulfilled; and though the Opposition have concentrated on the failure of his early promise of reduction in the estimates, this detail is of small importance beside the surrender of the bigger part of yet another new scheme. Nor would he give any detailed assurance as to how far the Government were prepared to go with him in the future. The greater part of his speech was a general defence of his own military creed; he treated the House to one more long and laborious exposition of blue water theories. Surely the House knows this speech by heart. "The principal function of our army was to fight in defence of our frontiers across the sea." A very unilluminating platitude.

The debate in the Lords rather emphasised the value of the overseas principle as applied in the new regulation as to militia. So far the militia have never been organised as a force designed to take a part in foreign service. Lord Wemyss objected in a vigorous speech to any revolution in this body of troops; and was answered by Lord Lansdowne. He perhaps laid too much stress on the economical side of the change, but he showed with even greater clearness than Mr. Arnold-Forster that if the identity of the force was to be kept, and the popular objections to merging it are at present insuperable, this change was the only one consistent with the needs of an Imperial army. It will also make the prospects in the militia more attractive for many officers.

Lord Donoughmore has explained away the South African army scandal. The whole affair arose from the discovery that many of the tins of jam were below what was thought to be standard weight. In fact there was no contract as to the weight of each tin. The whole consignment was sold in block and so taken the weight was accurate; the seller did not profit or the buyer suffer overmuch. But after the landing there appears to have been some misconception over the retail selling of the tins and the army officials made a gross mistake in commercial profit and loss in selling off the surplus stock. They actually sold it to colonial purchasers below the cost of the customs duty on it. In other words about a penny a tin, the difference between the sale price and the duty, was lost on the sale of some of the surplus stock. It would have been cheaper to toss the jam into the sea.

There was a short debate on Monday on the question of under-fed school children. It was very evident that opinion is growing in favour of municipal or State action. People are beginning to see the false economy of paying a pound to teach a child too hungry to learn, and grudging the penny for food that would make him able to learn. Colonel Lockwood announced his conversion; and Mr. Crooks made a really moving speech, not from any feeble sentimentality. No doubt the difficulty of making callous parents pay will be the crux. Could not the amount due for their children's food be deducted, by arrangement, from their wages?

The most interesting item in the proceedings of the London County Council on Tuesday was the discussion as to the technical or industrial scholarships of the Council. The Education Committee reported that it had been considering what powers the Council has to help in re-introducing the old-fashioned system of apprenticeship, which is generally considered to be the best system of preparation for the skilled handicrafts. In the meantime, however, this old system has fallen into desuetude and the system of technical or industrial scholarships ought to be kept up. It will, therefore, be maintained as at present with some slight improvements in respect of practical instruction, and this will involve an ultimate additional expense of about £2,800 a year in about five years from the present time.

The yearly meeting of the trustees of King Edward's Hospital Fund was held on Wednesday, and, even apart from the huge sum given by Lord Mount Stephen, the subscriptions showed a tendency to increase. The ideal of a capital sum yielding £150,000 yearly or rather more than £50,000 beyond the present income is still preached. The Prince of Wales in a very exhaustive speech went into the subject of hospital economies. The higher economies, which may result from centralisation, may be profitably attempted; but it is to be hoped that the frivolous domestic savings in separate hospitals will not be in any way encouraged.

When such expenses are spoken of it is well to remember that much of the best work given to the hospitals is quite gratuitous, and the emphasis on economy is overdone. The hospitals cost much because they do much, and the insistence on cheeseparing does harm to their efficiency. To give one instance, a recent mission, sent out from London to study how the Scots—more suo—cut down expenses in their hospitals, has advised that the nurses in the wards, instead of an extra kitchen boy, should soil and burn their hands by peeling the patients' baked potatoes!

More is owed by the nation to Lord Norton than many of the people who read the news of his death on Thursday morning will be aware of. He was of the past: he died in his ninetieth year and all his most valuable work was done when he was a young man. Bright called him "a dull man"; but he had persistency and thoroughness in a high degree and perhaps more than anyone else helped to defeat Mr Bright in his plea that Nova Scotia should be exempted from the Federation of the Dominion. On the day of Lord Norton's death members from Nova Scotia protested in the Dominion Senate against the weakening of the Imperial link by the British Government. When Lord Norton, then Mr. Adderley, piloted through the House Lord Derby's North American Act, more than 90 per cent. of the members of Nova Scotia were against Federation and many were well disposed towards annexation to the United States. And we may see a justification of the arguments he used in the House against the Free Trade Bill of 1846.

The "Cingalee" case ended on Wednesday in a verdict for the plaintiff, Captain Fraser, against Mr. George Edwardes with damages of £3,000. This appears rather a heavy assessment for the "nucleus" of a play, the plaintiff's contention being that it was the idea of "Hanjahnn" that had been used; and there was a good deal in the "Cingalee" which was not in Captain Fraser's play. The defendant's explanation of similarities was that both Captain Fraser and Mr. Tanner, the writer of the "Cingalee", had really used the "Geisha" as a model. But Captain Fraser's MS. had been in Mr. Edwardes' possession, and the similarities were traced by the jury to the MS. It has turned out to be a valuable nucleus and if the Edwardes share in the product has been rewarded at the same rate, we have a measure of the very profitable occupation of producing musical comedies. No wonder if Mr. Edwardes regrets that they are played out. On Thursday stay of execution was granted on condition that £2,000 was paid into court. The defendant will appeal chiefly on the ground that the damages are excessive.

#### FOREIGN OFFICE GOVERNMENT.

**TO-DAY** the East Africa Protectorates, including Uganda, pass from the agis of the Foreign Office to that of the Colonial Office. That the change of departmental authority is eminently logical, no one with any knowledge of the subject will deny, though by what process of reasoning the transfer has been thus unduly delayed passes the comprehension of the wisest.

It is necessary in reviewing the past to inquire as to the course of events previous to 1888. In that year the Sultan of Zanzibar granted to the British East Africa Company a concession of his mainland possessions, a commercial transaction which prompted the Germans a few months later to follow suit. Unfortunately the conceded areas overlapped, and the differences which resulted were finally settled by the Anglo-German Treaty of 1890. Thus the two Powers established their several spheres of influence. It is of importance to bear these events in mind, for had it not been for the international questions involved, the Foreign Office would never have been called upon to interest itself at all in the Protectorates. A year or so later the company added the Kingdom of Uganda to its already far too extensive trading area, but so great was the expense incurred that the British Government was ultimately invited to take over the burdens of the situation. Had the difficulties been of a purely commercial nature, the company might have reaped the benefit of its enterprise. But when it came to warring with a turbulent Sultan, to say nothing of recalcitrant chiefs, affairs took a serious turn, so that finally, in 1895, the company decided to forego its ambitious venture and made an offer, which was accepted, to sell its remaining rights to the British Government for a quarter of a million pounds sterling.

Such briefly is the history of our East African possessions. At this point of the proceedings it would have seemed logical to hand over these vast territories to the Colonial Office. But still the Foreign Office remained in administrative possession and, despite the novelty of the rôle and its utter lack of experience, it has kept its hold on the government of the Protectorates down to the present date. In acting thus it reminds us of the fable of the bull and the frog. Had almost any other department of State usurped the administrative rôle, something in extenuation of the policy might conceivably have been advanced; but that a purely international department should have been allowed to arrogate the duties of Government for ten long years is amazing. For lack of a better explanation, we can only conjecture that the Foreign Office decided to extend its sphere of influence and that not until a state of administrative anarchy had resulted was the Colonial Office invited to enter into possession. But however that may be, we have certainly had to pay dearly for the experiment, as the yearly estimates but too clearly show. To quote Sir Charles Eliot, the late Commissioner, in his admirable book "The East Africa Protectorate", "We have made an outlay of about six millions on the Uganda Railway, and expended annually two or three hundred thousand pounds on grants in aid without any appreciable return". "I consider", he says, "that the construction of the Uganda Railway can be justified, though I deplore the unnecessary expenditure which accompanied it". And again a little further on, "though the country has not made such progress as it might, it has not been spoiled, and we may reasonably hope that when it is transferred to the Colonial Office and managed with more system and experience, it will rapidly advance in prosperity". There is yet another equally deplorable retrospect. From all accounts the officials employed have not only been too few in number, but, with certain reservations, of very inferior capacity; and it is worth notice that, with the single exception of Sir Arthur Hardinge, not one commissioner has left the country with an enhanced reputation. Thus, looking back on the past, we observe that no less than six representatives of the Imperial Government have resigned or been recalled, a list which includes such well-known names as Sir Frederick Lugard, Colonel Macdonald, Sir Harry Johnstone,



General Ternan, Mr. Ernest Berkeley and last, but by no means least, Sir Charles Eliot. It will be interesting to observe how the Colonial Office acquits itself of this administrative task and whether disagreements will arise with subsequent commissioners. If we are not much deceived, the fault has hitherto rested entirely with the Foreign Office and we look forward from to-day to a new and prosperous era throughout the whole of East Africa.

This question opens up a much larger field for discussion—the administration and general working of the Foreign Office itself. When such deplorable incompetency is displayed as to East Africa, is it not conceivable that ineptitude may taint other enterprises with which this department of State is concerned? Indeed, in these days of public inquiry it is astonishing that the Foreign Office has so long escaped inquiry. Perhaps it is that the secrecy in which its dealings are cloaked has hitherto been regarded as an insuperable obstacle; certainly from the Foreign Office point of view the idea is likely to be carefully fostered. It is however the “machine” not the “books” of the firm that needs inspection, and soon, for the impression is gaining ground that not even the Foreign Office is infallible. We are not, of course, suggesting that less reticence should be displayed as to diplomatic negotiations: secrecy in such cases is a vital prerogative. What we do take exception to is the idea that because the Foreign Office holds the position of a state confessor the working of the department is not to be questioned. We believe that if the truth were only known, it would be proved anything but a model department; that under the guise of “secrecy” gross irregularities are committed; in short that the organisation, procedure and general conduct of its affairs is contrary to the best interests of the service. We do not complain that examinations for the Foreign Office diplomatic and consular services are open to selected candidates only. Considering the nature of the employment such precautionary measures are very advisable. But what is the method of selection? The Secretary of State cannot be expected to interview the thousand and one applicants; with whom then rests the choice? Again, with regard to promotions in the services under the Foreign Office, if mere seniority is no claim, and clearly it ought not to be, considering the nature of the employment, upon what system is the most deserving person selected? The same criticism applies in cases where diplomatists and consuls are removed from one post to another; how is the decision arrived at? It is all very well to suggest that the sanction of the Secretary of State is a condition precedent to any decision; but is it conceivable that the head of so extensive a department can do more than act, in such cases, on advice? It is a very different matter when the question is one of appointing ambassadors or ministers to foreign Courts. Here he must needs, and does, personally interest himself in the selection, for upon his choice devolves the execution of his policy. It is in the Foreign Office dealings with less important officials that danger is most to be apprehended, for this selection now rests in effect with a single person, the private secretary to the Foreign Minister, whose record proves indisputably his unsuitability for the task. We do not wish to question Sir William Eric Barrington's motives; English permanent officials are all honourable men. But a man who allows personal idiosyncrasies to affect his selection of men to fill posts, minor in one sense but none the less of great imperial and international importance, ought not to be trusted with any such responsibility. Some would have a permanent board of selection created to control the patronage now disposed by Sir William Eric Barrington, who after all has only followed the precedents set by his predecessors. We are not convinced that such a change is necessary. If a board acts collectively as a board, its decisions are usually a compromise; no board can have the instinct of knowing men. More often the ostensible action of a board is really the influence of a single member; therefore the real need in this case is a change of men.

There is however a yet wider question which deserves the closest attention, the advisability of making the two services, Foreign Office and Diplo-

macy, which at present are to all intents and purposes absolutely distinct, interchangeable. Every man engaged in diplomacy or in the work of the Foreign Office should see service both at some foreign capital and at home. At present the Foreign Office clerk is wholly ignorant of diplomacy, and the diplomat is certainly insufficiently acquainted with the working of the department in Downing Street. That some such arrangement would sensibly increase the efficiency of the department goes without saying. As things are at present “East is East and West is West”, and the official in Downing Street, dealing with international questions, is entirely dependent on despatches, having no more previous knowledge of the subject-matter he has to handle than the merest outsider. By no means the least anomaly of the present system is to be found in the question of retirements. Thus ambassadors and ministers whose interest and energy have been destroyed by too long a residence in one particular place, usually the most unhealthy, are unable to resign even a year before their recognised period of service is completed, owing to the regulations in force as to “pensions”; whilst consuls of great ability either retire or eat out their existence at some distant post merely because some utterly incompetent senior cannot be dismissed. The conclusion of the whole matter is that the Foreign Office requires a thorough renovation. To this end the most searching inquiry is necessary, for until something of the sort takes place the efficiency of the service can only decline.

#### TSAR AND PEASANT.

THE absolute undivided autocratic power of the Tsar, as understood by the Russian people, constitutes a fundamental principle of the national life. The Alpha and Omega indeed of the peasant's religion is autocracy, centred in the person of “his father” below and the omnipotence of his Heavenly Father above. The peculiar orthodox rites and ceremonies associated with the sovereign's investiture at his coronation, the imposing solemnity in the offering up of prayers for the Tsar at High Mass; the religious teaching of the young, linking the Godhead in heaven with the anointed one of God on earth—all this constitutes a curriculum of tradition, which from childhood upwards awakens in the heart of the peasant a certain holy veneration and a pious reliance on the paternal guardianship and solicitude of the Tsar. And in spite of all rumours to the contrary, we believe that this growth and expansion of ages, this faith of the people in the equity of autocracy, still exists amongst the Russian portion of the peasantry. Moreover from the measures adopted to instigate the peasants to revolt it is obvious that the revolutionary party of to-day, like its prototypes in the past, freely admits this potent factor in the peasants' convictions. Revolutionary movements are not newer to Russia than to Western Europe; but it is significant that their origin and aim have always been wholly different from the social upheavals of the West.

In European States the people rose and rebelled actually and intentionally against the sovereign power, and their aim was either to destroy that power or else to shear it of some of its prerogatives. In Russia the people, misled by imposture and acting under the influence of pretenders, revolted against the existing authority in the firm belief that they were responding to their legitimate sovereign's command, defending their legitimate sovereign's rights. In the “troubled times” of the seventeenth century, during the interregnum, the renegade monk Grishka Otrëpëv, under the patronage of the intriguing King of Poland, by a ruse successfully personified the murdered son of Ivan the Terrible, and was acknowledged Tsar. Here we have an apt illustration of the people's loyalty and attachment to the Tsar's person in particular. For directly the fraud was discovered, the country to a man rose to arms, and led by Minnin, the humble citizen of Novgorod, and Prince Pojarsky, representing the nobility, joined the rallying troops and marched against the pretender in the Kremlin.

The Polish army supporting him was routed and driven across the frontier; the pretender was ousted and killed, and the young Romanov, the rightful heir, was placed on the throne. Pugatchov's revolt again in the reign of Catharine II. owed its partial success to his bluff and to his astuteness in playing the part of a pretender as much as to his personal magnetism. He knew how to persuade the peasants and Kazaks that he was the real Peter III. who had escaped his would-be assassin, and that in joining his standard they were only aiding him to recover his rights of which he had been illegally deprived by his wife, the reigning Empress who was an alien. Years rolled by, intercommunication became more general, the convictions of the people ripened into reality and the appearance among them of pretenders became no longer possible. But the old sentiment of tacit submission and unswerving obedience to the will of the sovereign was observable at every small or great uprising of the masses. During the Polish rebellion in Alexander II.'s reign attempts were made by the revolutionary party to spread revolt among the peasants in the Russian provinces by inciting proclamations printed in golden type and ostensibly coming from the Tsar. The early 'seventies ushered in another revolutionary agitation, this time for social reforms on Western principles. Groups of young enthusiasts chiefly from the student class betook themselves to the people as politico-economic revivalists preaching the doctrines of revolution. The result was typically Russian. So long as the agitators spoke and harangued the people on their own authority they could get no hearing. A partial success however was eventually attained in one of the south-eastern provinces where a revolt did break out among the peasantry. But this was brought about solely by virtue of the old talisman. The conspirators gave themselves out as the emissaries and spokesmen of the supreme power. They were really repeating the Tsar's proclamation word for word. In connexion with this social revolutionary mania of the period Tourguenev (who cannot consistently be suspected of autocratic tendencies) draws in his "Virgin Soil" a humorous scene, with an undercurrent of cutting sarcasm.

In the present revolts against the landed proprietors or local authorities the peasants, be it observed, do not insist on any new political prerogatives for themselves. They merely demand an assurance of their own legal rights and privileges in their ownership of the land, which had been granted by the Tsar and withheld from them by the rural authorities—that is the landed gentry. The recent outbursts of peasant rioters, though in some isolated cases seriously mischievous, can in no wise be accepted as a menace to Imperial authority. It is distinctly the landed proprietors the cry is against. The peasants believe that the Tsar alone can satisfy their legitimate craving for more land and that the landlord is standing in their way. Here again the revolutionary incendiary is at his old game. By goading on the moujik to insist on his lawful rights to more land by forcibly taking what he can from the landlord, who is an obstructive disobeying the order of the Tsar, this so-called reformer hopes to find in the villages a match to ignite a revolution which missed fire in the cities. Not only do the peasants steadfastly believe that the Tsar alone can satisfy their craving for more land, but they are also convinced that his wealth is inexhaustible, that their heavy taxation goes to pay those wolves the officials.

As to the management of their own affairs, the revolutionary, when haranguing them to join in the fray for reform, is usually faced with the argument that the peasants have their Mir and their Skhod (parliament), and want no right of meddling in the Tsar's own affairs. The Mir or village commune is one of the bulkheads of the Russian ship of state against revolutionary leakages. In "the great stronghold of Cæsarian despotism and centralised bureaucracy" these communes, curiously enough, are most favourable specimens of representative government of the extreme democratic type. This institution "whose spontaneous vitality enables it to dispense with the assistance and guidance of the written law", as we may remind the

numerous Englishmen who continue to regard Russia as "a nation of savages", was founded by Nicholas I., the incarnation of autocracy and the champion of the reactionary party throughout Europe. The Mir, for which women as heads of households have the right to vote, has its own discretionary power of allotting the land among its members. It enforces and collects all the taxes; issues passports to peasants of its own community wishing to settle temporarily in towns; controls its own police, and in many respects remains entirely beyond the sphere of vision or the influence of the hated bureaucracy. To those who have really lived for any length of time amongst the Russian peasantry, and watched the inner workings of a Mir there seems neither rhyme nor reason for the supposition that even the most artful, the most ardent, red-hot revolutionary could ever set on fire a country with five-sixths of its population enjoying constitutional privileges denied to a fourth part of the British Isles.

Such is the moral force of the Autocrat of All the Russias, a force acknowledged by the extremists amongst the revolutionaries themselves. Once let so ancient a form of government be acknowledged as acceptable by a hundred million of the Russian people, and there can remain no room for futile talk of replacing it by inventions which appeal to the imagination of a man of words, such as Maxim Gorki, or flatter the frenzy of holy firebrands like Gapon. It is not such men as these that will extricate Russia from her internal troubles. They only hamper the Tsar in the introduction of measures applicable to the actual conditions of a Slav people, and weaken and impede the action of the legitimate moderate party of reformers.

#### THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE NEW GERMAN TREATIES.

MR. W. A. S. HEWINS, who as Secretary of the Tariff Commission is in a very advantageous position to gauge the opinions of leading commercial men, was very wise to choose the Commercial Treaties which Germany has recently concluded with the countries of Central Europe as the subject for his lecture yesterday to the Compatriots Club. The subject is further brought prominently before the public by the issue last week of a somewhat bulky Blue-book from the offices of the Board of Trade, giving in parallel columns the existing German tariff on British goods, the new "General" tariff, and the new "Conventional" tariff which represents this General tariff as modified by the treaties just concluded. Even a cursory examination of the changes which the new tariff has introduced shows that in most of the articles in which this country is interested appreciable, and sometimes considerable, enhancements of the import duties have taken place. The duties on woollen cloths weighing from 200 to 700 grammes per square metre (about 7 to 24 ounces per square yard) have been raised from 135 marks to 150 marks per 100 kilograms. While this rise will not profoundly affect the coarse and heavy trade, it will seriously check the imports of plain and fancy worsteds which is the staple trade of the Bradford district. The exports of cotton yarns from Lancashire will also suffer by the modifications introduced into the new tariff. While the duties on the coarser counts have been reduced—the Germans have ceased to fear competition in this class—those on the finer counts have been raised, indicating their probable intention of attempting to manufacture this class of goods themselves. The duties on velvets and plushes in the "grey" has been raised 33½ per cent. In general, a comparison of the new with the old duties is rendered impossible to any but an expert in the several trades concerned, in consequence of the enormous changes in classification which have now been adopted. This applies more especially to the sections dealing with iron and steel, and wares thereof, and machinery. Groups of articles, which were formerly included under a single uniform rate, are now found to be subdivided into eight or ten other groups, with special rates attached to each of them. It would occupy a committee of experts a very



considerable time to determine how British goods are treated under the existing and the new tariffs respectively. From the inquiries of such a committee the conclusion would, however, certainly emerge that the reductions are in goods which this country does not export, or in which Germany does not fear competition. In all cases which affect British trading interests the duties have been raised, sometimes very considerably.

It is clear that Germany has entered into these treaties with the object of further increasing the amount of her export trade to these countries. She has secured tariff concessions and other advantages which will enable her to compete effectively with Great Britain in these continental markets. Germany has sound reason for her belief that the great expansion which has taken place in her export trade to the countries of Central Europe has been caused by the exceptionally favourable conditions which were secured under the Caprivi treaties of 1891-4. What other conclusion is possible from the figures showing the progress of German trade with these countries? One of the supplementary volumes to the German official edition contains these statistics, and from these we calculate that whereas in 1892 the total imports of German merchandise into Italy, Belgium, Russia, Roumania, Servia, Switzerland and Austria-Hungary were valued at £61,000,000, these had risen to £87,000,000 in 1902. The significance of these figures is still further increased when a comparison with the trade of Great Britain is instituted. The imports from this country rose from an aggregate of £41,000,000 in 1892 to £43,000,000 in 1902. Germany's trade with these countries, which was 50 per cent. more than that of the United Kingdom at the time the last treaties were signed, has now increased till it has become 100 per cent. greater.

We think that this result has not been entirely, or even in the main, attained by the special tariff arrangements negotiated by these countries. Such might be the conclusion from the fact that the only part of the new German treaties which our own Board of Trade has, so far, thought fit to issue is the schedule of the new German tariffs. But we are strongly persuaded that the special concessions in respect of railway rates, the guaranteeing of freedom from all kinds of discrimination on German as against home-made goods; the promise to assimilate the conditions of labour in the various countries; the special Customs regulations on the land-frontiers and many other arrangements of this description, are of infinitely greater importance than the mere rate of tariff at which a certain article will be admitted. By the "most-favoured-nation" treatment, which we are constantly being told we in this country enjoy in virtue of our passive policy of free imports, the goods of this country are admitted everywhere at the lowest rate of duty. The idea that we always receive the benefit of every reduction in tariff because of this so-called most-favoured-nation treatment has now been exploded. The goods we specially manufacture are found to be those against which the tariffs are repeatedly raised, whereas the goods we do not make in this country are constantly having their tariffs reduced. In spite of most-favoured-nation treatment the tariffs on British goods are, almost daily, becoming more heavy, while the tariffs on Swiss or Belgian goods entering Germany are becoming less burdensome.

An examination of the text of the treaties lying before us shows how easy it is for valuable concessions to be granted by one country to another which from the nature of things we cannot share. Article II. of the Italian Treaty provides for the assimilation of conditions of employment, especially with regard to workmen's insurance, of Germans in Italy and of Italians in Germany. Article IV. provides that the natives of each country shall be exempted from compulsory military service in the other. Article V. provides that commercial travellers shall not be subjected to any levy, and that travellers' samples shall not be subject to any duties. Article X. provides that no inland dues shall be imposed either by the State or by any local authority which are not levied at the same time on similar goods of home manufacture. Article XII. provides against the possibility of levying a surtax on native goods brought in ships flying the flags of the

respective countries. Article XIV. extends the privileges of the coasting trade to each other's country. These are a few examples of the clauses in the Italian Treaty. Which of these, or how many do we enjoy in consequence of the most-favoured-nation clause which governs the commercial relations of this country with Germany or Italy? For instance, would the privilege of participation in Germany's coasting trade, enjoyed by treaty with Italy, be similarly enjoyed by British shipping? If we have any claim to it, we are sure it would be conceded only after protracted negotiations.

Certain other arrangements secured by the new treaties are obviously of such a character that this country cannot actually, if nominally, participate in them. Special customs house regulations in force at the Austro-German and Russo-German frontiers belong to this category. The whole of our trade with these countries is maritime and no concession to overland trade which is not simultaneously extended to the maritime trade can benefit us. On the contrary, by securing a differential advantage to our competitor it cannot fail to do us damage. The same remark applies to the provision in nearly all the seven treaties that no discrimination shall be tolerated in the matter of railway rates as between the goods for the treaty country and similar goods made at home. Clearly, whatever facilitates trade between these countries but is not at the same time extended to British commerce must in the end cause us injury. It is in the light of this simple and fairly obvious principle that these treaties should be read.

However they constitute a useful object-lesson, much the most valuable which has occurred since Mr. Chamberlain declared himself in favour of a drastic change in our own fiscal policy. We find other countries can secure valuable concessions and facilities for international trade only when they are able to grant concessions or facilities in return. The negotiations of Germany with the various other Governments show that reductions of tariffs as assurances against any further increase were asked for and obtained only in the case of goods in which one of the countries was particularly interested. In the case of articles which this country alone, at present, exported, the tariff was raised. If we could have offered something in return there can be no question that we could have had these tariffs very considerably reduced. However hostile the discrimination against British goods some of the treaty provisions and many of the tariff rates may appear to us to be, we have no remedy in international law. We are compelled to take them all lying down. We can watch our markets passing from us one by one, and derive what comfort we can from the knowledge that we continue to enjoy "most-favoured-nation" treatment.

#### MR. ARNOLD-FORSTER'S APOLOGY.

MR. ARNOLD-FORSTER was a pathetic figure in the House of Commons this week when, in contrast to his former self-confident assurance, he was compelled to admit the practical failure of his cherished but abortive plans; and to show that he has tardily learnt the lesson of humility. The state of affairs at present at the War Office shows once more how thankless and indeed almost impossible is the task imposed upon our War Secretaries. We have here a well-meaning and earnest Minister who, whether successfully or not, has prepared himself for his post with much more care and forethought than any of his predecessors, with the possible exception of General Peel. But the very arduous nature of his previous studies has proved to be an actual disadvantage in Mr. Arnold-Forster's case. For whereas General Peel—who anticipated Mr. Cardwell in almost all that was best in the latter's schemes—had practical experience, Mr. Arnold-Forster had only theory. Now the present War Secretary reluctantly finds that practice and theory are two very different things; and that the amateur's aspirations are mainly impossible. His Estimates speech was decidedly good as far as it went; and with some of its contentions we cordially agree. But in many points it suggested the funeral oration of yet another discarded military scheme.

It was mainly confined to an academic demonstration of the soundness of his own views, and it told us little of what is actually being done or is intended to be done. Nor did it cover the ground; since it ignored altogether some of the most damaging criticisms which have been passed on his efforts to inaugurate a military millennium. Moreover, as Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman pointed out, his utterances gave us no clue whether the Government as a whole has endorsed his views, or is likely to make an attempt to carry them out.

No one has opposed reduction in cadres more strenuously than we. But we have never put the point so strongly as Mr. Arnold-Forster did himself in the House of Commons on Tuesday. Speaking of the abolition of the recently raised regular battalions, he said, "I will venture to say that no more disastrous or more uneconomical policy can be pursued. Why? The moment you go to war you have to confront a situation such as we have recently had in South Africa, you have to look around for officers. You take off fourteen line battalions, and at a stroke you cut off 400 regular officers from the army". Nothing could be sounder; and it is what we have always maintained. But this is very different from Mr. Arnold-Forster's original tone when he seriously proposed to perpetrate this enormity. It is true that he explains his former attitude by saying that he only consented to reduction on condition that these threatened battalions were replaced by nineteen home-service ones. But this does not justify his former attitude, nor does it minimise our point. These nineteen hybrid battalions, partly militia and partly regulars, would in no way have compensated for the loss of fourteen or sixteen regular ones. However we welcome most cordially Mr. Arnold-Forster's conversion, and the acquisition on his part of yet another new quality—openness to conviction. The sum of the whole business is therefore eminently satisfactory; the newly raised battalions are to remain intact. Turning to the Army Council, the War Secretary still maintains that it is working well, although it is true that few share his opinion. Nearly all through his speech he spoke in the first person singular; as if all the arguments and conclusions which he adduced were his alone, which they probably were. He claims credit for a lot of work done since the new régime was inaugurated. But much of this was done, or at least arranged to be done, before his advent. Thus the reorganisation of the veterinary department was all worked out by Lord Hardwicke's committee before his time. So also to some extent was it in the case of the Intelligence and the Medical departments. One noticeable point in all Mr. Arnold-Forster's statements is the manner in which he completely ignores the Inspector-General's name or those of his subordinate Inspectors. We presume these officials are not consulted at all, or consulted as little as are the professional members of the Army Council. Yet surely the Inspector-General's branch might be utilised with some advantage as an asset in the military hierarchy.

Throughout we have been at one with Mr. Arnold-Forster in his proposals for the auxiliary forces; and in our opinion he has thoroughly grasped this complex subject. Hence it is particularly hard that he should have been attacked more bitterly on this part of his scheme, which is thoroughly sound, than on almost any other. There are a number of attenuated militia units which, as they now stand, are virtually useless; they could not be sent abroad during the late war either to South Africa or to the Colonies. So it is quite right to amalgamate and, in certain cases, to disband some of these. Nor is the training of the whole sufficient. But here some almost insuperable difficulties prevail. Unfortunately the militia cannot be treated entirely from its own standpoint. It is a fruitful feeding-ground for the regular army; and, though this of course is bad for the militia, we cannot afford to neglect any source of regular recruits. Something more, however, might be done for the militia, although it is somewhat doubtful whether it will be found possible to lengthen materially the period of training. Again it is all to the good that the militia should be held liable for foreign service in case of war, though in practice this may make but little difference. It is true that the existing system is

supposed in this respect to be voluntary. In reality, however, it is little else than compulsory, because few have the hardihood to step out of the ranks, when asked, and refuse to go on active service, unless, as happened in some cases during the South African war, whole battalions refused. So also it is with the Volunteers. Many are now practically useless as soldiers: and although it may be said that any man who carries a rifle—whether he can use it effectively or not—is better than nothing in our case, we are inclined to think that the Volunteers would be all the better if relieved of such "passengers". Nevertheless we should guard against carrying this principle too far. Mr. Arnold-Forster tells us that the present war has shown the value of quality as against quantity. But quality alone is not sufficient to secure success in war. It is only by a combination of quality and quantity that good results can be achieved.

The possibility of an invasion of the British Isles and the problem of conscription were considered at length by Mr. Arnold-Forster, who admitted that if the navy could not guarantee us against invasion, no other course but compulsory service was open. He further added that if any Power was strong enough at sea to land 100,000 men on these shores, we could be starved out in six days without a landing having been effected. Where is the argument in this? The navy might temporarily have been diverted elsewhere without being crushed; and the main point about a landing in our case is, as we have frequently pointed out, the immense and disastrous effect which the mere fact of a landing, even if ultimately unsuccessful, would have on our prestige, credit and monetary system generally. This was pointed out forty-five years ago in Lord Overstone's celebrated letter, which we commend most strongly to enthusiasts of the "blue water" theory. Indeed, even if Cabinet, Defence Committee, Admiralty, and Army Council combine to guarantee the complete invincibility of the navy, we are not satisfied to have no second line of defence. We hope and believe that our navy is all that is claimed for it. Still history has often shown, both in ancient and modern times, that confidence is no guarantee of success when the day of trial comes. We admit that if our navy were completely crushed, there would be no hope for us. But partial or temporary eclipse is what we wish to provide against. Considering the whole situation as expounded by Mr. Arnold-Forster, it is satisfactory to find that at last a War Secretary has admitted that, if we are not completely guaranteed from invasion, conscription is the only logical outcome. Although the War Secretary may not have intended it to be so, his arguments and contentions all tend towards the establishment of a system of compulsion, while by his last statement he has certainly brought it a step nearer to practical politics.

#### THE LONDON MEDICAL SCHOOLS.

IT happens that the annual meeting of King Edward's Hospital Fund and the appeal of Guy's Hospital for a capital sum of £100,000 and for £15,000 increased annual income have coincided this week. At the meeting was read the report of the recent Committee which under Sir Edward Fry's presidency inquired into the distribution of the Fund among the various hospitals; particularly in relation to the fact that nine out of twelve London Hospitals with medical schools have had to carry on the work of these institutions by availing themselves of the funds received by the Governors. It was however on the initiative of Mr. Stephen Coleridge, primarily as the secretary of the Anti-Vivisection Society, and of Sir Henry Burdett, who has seen in this subject an opportunity of obtaining a little cheap popularity as a philanthropist, that objection to the employment of the fund was raised. The report of the Committee has been a triumph for them it must be confessed, however little sympathy we may have with the grounds on which they have succeeded.

It has now become a matter of odium that any hospital should carry on its medical school by eking out its finances in this way. The Committee balanced



the mutual good done to the hospitals by the schools and to the schools by the hospitals and were not able logically or practically to separate one from the other. In concession however to the sentiment worked on by Mr. Coleridge, and the intellectually feeble notion about charitable funds being diverted to non-charitable uses worked by Sir Henry Burdett, the Committee reported that the distribution of the funds should take the form of a premium for discouraging this appropriation of funds. It will be understood of course that the Committee made no allegation of any kind of financial dishonesty or impropriety in their strictures on the relation of the medical schools and the hospitals. However the result is that those hospitals which have to resort to the device will work in future under the stigma placed on them by the Committee. The effect of it is also seen in the case of Guy's where, having to resort to the contributions of the public, its appeal winds up on the triumphant note that "every penny entrusted to us for the relief of the sick poor goes to their direct benefit". This is conceivably excusable where a touting competition for funds has to be undertaken by all hospitals: but it is petty, and ungenerous to other hospitals in a less fortunate position than Guy's claims to be. But the survival of the fittest in the hospital world means those who can beg most plausibly.

If these disabilities are to be imposed on the institutions which have both a hospital and a medical school to support, what is to happen to them? The conditions of modern medical science and teaching make it inevitable that the demands of the examining and diploma conferring bodies, upon whose recognition the medical schools depend, will continue in an increasing degree to insist on further expenses being incurred in order to make the teaching conform with present-day standards. In buildings, in apparatus, in teaching, everything tends to increased expenditure. The staffs increase necessarily, and with this arise more occasions for spending money on what is often sheer waste, though it can hardly be checked. On the other hand the number of provincial students in the London medical schools have been decreasing at the rate of about one hundred and seventy per annum for some years; and this represents a loss of about twenty thousand pounds a year. It would seem that in their struggles with an unsatisfactory system the teaching in London is not so good as it ought to be; and at all events the London schools have no advantage over the modern schools which have arisen in such towns as Birmingham, Leeds and Sheffield. Many devices have been suggested, but those who are in closest touch with the medical schools cannot tell as yet how they are to get out of their dilemma. One of the hospitals has come before the public with a "discretionary" scheme; meaning by this that subscribers shall say whether their money shall be applied to the specific purposes of the hospital or at discretion to the medical school. As medical education, whether undertaken by the faculty of a university or, as mostly in London, in the hospital schools, is a matter of national or municipal importance, it would appear natural that the State or municipalities should be empowered to make subsidies where sufficient funds cannot be raised, as is the case in London, from the students' fees or other established resources. It seems the height of absurdity that, in the absence of such specific provision, begging petitions should have to be made to the public especially at a time when the suspicion has been instilled into it by the committee's report. The mass of people from whom contributions are asked are not sufficiently intelligent to understand the close relations between the highest medical teaching and the efficiency of the hospitals as charitable institutions. In their eyes the hospitals are a sort of blessing sent down from heaven, and are only remotely and vaguely connected with scientific medical research and teaching. When it comes to a contest between touting for the hospital pure and simple, and touting for the medical schools, the latter will suffer without a doubt; so that their means will become every day more and more precarious. Moreover as far as the Hospital Fund is concerned it is evident that it cannot be relied on in future for meeting the wants

of the hospitals themselves which are steadily growing. Small subscriptions do not increase; and there is a limit to the whipping up of the larger subscribers upon whom the Fund seems likely to become more and more dependent. The tendency of all charity is to dwindle, after the first stimulating emotion has had time to subside; and however much we may regret the possibility it is likely that the elasticity of the Fund will not increase but diminish. The fair inference therefore is that so far from the medical schools being sure of future public support, the hospitals will have enough to do to raise the increasing amounts they will require for their own work.

But in spite of all these considerations, which are present vividly enough to those who are responsible for the medical schools, they show a hesitation which is intelligible, but not well founded, as to demanding assistance from State or municipality. There is one plan for escaping the difficulty which has found favour with them but which is likely to require a considerable amount of time before it can be got into working order. Before Sir Edward Fry's Committee had reported, some of the medical schools had considered how they might arrange for their junior students up to the third year receiving outside the precincts of the hospital the training preliminary to the clinical stage. There is, so far as mere teaching is concerned, no reason why these students should be about the hospital at all. It is no advantage to them personally that they should be there, unless we are to consider that the subsequent three years of strict hospital attendance are not sufficient to create and nourish that esprit de corps which undoubtedly results in a healthy competition between the members of the several hospitals. If one or, more practically, several centres were established, in which these students could be taught, there would evidently be the difference in expense between twelve separate teaching staffs and the lesser number which would thus be required. This plan was recommended by Sir Edward Fry's Committee, and can be approved as a rational plan of reducing to order the present expensive chaotic system. The reduced expense in that case may make the self-support of the medical schools up to this stage quite possible. Afterwards it is asserted by the Committee, and expected by many engaged in medical teaching, that the hospital schools would then become self-supporting, and would need no assistance for the ordinary annual work of the schools. The London University has placed itself at the head of the movement for carrying out the project. But between three and four hundred thousand pounds, and a considerable amount of time, will be required before it can be a substitute for the present system. We are not hopeful about the money being raised. But what are the medical schools to do in the interval, ostracised as they are from the Hospital Fund, and with the difficulties we have pointed out in getting money from the public? Great harm may be done to the medical schools, and in consequence to the hospitals, as the result of the outcry that has been raised. It would have been better for things to remain as they were until the medical schools could be rearranged. There seems decidedly a case for Government care that in the meantime "res medica" shall suffer no harm.

#### THE CITY.

THE markets have been decidedly quieter during the past week and, apart from a vague and somewhat indefinite feeling in regard to affairs in Afghanistan, which were credited with occupying a more important position in relation to developments in the Far East than is generally supposed, international politics have not been quite so much in evidence. It is true that the enthusiastic reception which the German Emperor is to receive in Tangiers, in so far as it may be regarded as a counter to the French interest, was used as far as possible to create uneasiness, but the effect was not lasting, and the remarkable enthusiasm with which the new Japanese Loan has been received both in London and New York was amply sufficient to disperse any bearish feeling, as the support which also came

abundantly from the chief continental centres of finance appeared in the eyes of the City conclusive evidence that weight of money was being thrown in the favour of Japan. The loan which is for £30,000,000 was offered as to £15,000,000 in New York and the remaining moiety here. The subscription price was 90 per cent. and the bonds, which carry interest at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. are repayable at par on 15 February, 1925, or at the option of the Imperial Government on giving six months' notice at any time after 15 February 1910. The specific security on the loan is the revenue derived from the tobacco monopoly which is vested in the Imperial Government and is estimated to amount to the sum of £3,270,000 for the fiscal year 1905-6. It is seen therefore that on an extremely conservative basis the loan is amply covered and the premium of 2 per cent. which is established, is quite warranted: should any of our readers have been too late to apply or have received a letter of regret the loan can be safely recommended as an investment at the present price.

The Siamese loan to which reference was made in our last issue was a great success, and a premium of 2 per cent. is also quoted for this issue. The loan is a sound investment as the financial adviser to the Government is usually an experienced officer lent by the Financial Department of the Government of India, and that means of course that there can be no undue extravagance in administration and an absence of corruption as far as it is possible in an Eastern country: the issue was undoubtedly assisted by the successes of the Japanese arms and we trust the responsible financial advisers will not be misled by the enthusiastic reception accorded to the loan to come again too quickly—there must be always a temptation in such cases to force the pace with the danger of schemes for development proceeding too fast for the natural growth of a young nation. Although the issues to which we refer have been so successful, the disappointing results of several high-grade loans which have been offered emphasise the fact that the public are surfeited and it would be to the advantage of all concerned if the issuing houses stayed their hand for a time. Underwriters must also be full of stock and until their load is lightened it is unlikely that they will be anxious to enter into fresh commitments, at any rate for the present.

The speculative markets of the Stock Exchange have been dull and we are disposed to look for still lower prices except in South African mines which should show improvement, although possibly of no substantial importance during the next few accounts. If our information is correct the chief mining houses have held informal meetings and are satisfied that, to use their own language, "the goose is killed which laid the golden eggs" in other words the public have been frightened completely out of the South African market. As to the internecine quarrels of the finance houses we are not greatly concerned except in so far as they affect the investor in South African securities, but it is deplorable that men who are otherwise able should have been so shortsighted. We have spoken quite plainly on this subject on many occasions, and have, we trust, deterred investors from entering the mining market whilst the houses continued their line of action. Now that their own henchmen in the financial press have turned on them it is possible that they may consider the question of sufficient importance to come to a common understanding as to a policy which, to do any real good, must be continued steadily for several months if confidence is to be restored. The mining industry of the Transvaal is a bona-fide business and the enormous interests held by the genuine investor demand that those responsible for the market should act in a manner worthy of the trust given to them—as it is they have snatched at a fractional profit so that they may deal in the shares, leaving the shareholder to take care of himself: we sincerely trust the change of front is genuine and if the market holds for a month or two the public may buy again. Meanwhile as a pure investment to a person who can take up the shares we have reason to believe that a purchase of New Heriot shares—which are unduly low—should prove profitable; advices we have seen from disinterested sources as to the mine are very satisfactory.

The American railroad market has continued to be unsettled with lower prices on balance, but an exception must be made in favour of the New York and Ontario shares on the statement as to a 3 per cent. guarantee being given by the New York Central Company; Chesapeake and Ohio shares have also been largely bought and a rise of several points is probable if the advices from the other side are correct.

We drew attention in our last issue to the shares of the leading Indian Exchange banks, and it may be noted that the quotations for the Hong Kong and Shanghai Corporation shares have risen  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. during the week, an advance entirely warranted in our opinion as, apart from the excellent yield derived at the current price, developments in China and Korea must result in large profits to an institution the affairs of which are so prudently managed. We propose to draw the attention of our readers this week to the opportunities afforded by an investment in the shares of the various South African banks, the main features of which are tabulated below:—

	Capital. £	Reserve. £	Price.	Yield about £ s. d.
Standard Bank of South Africa ... ..	1,548,525	1,982,050	86 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 3 6
National Bank of South Africa ... ..	1,100,000	120,000	18	4 10 0
Bank of Africa ... ..	1,000,000	645,000	14 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 14 0
The Natal Bank ... ..	500,000	290,000	{ 54 $\frac{1}{2}$ 114 $\frac{1}{2}$ }	6 0 0
African Banking Corporation ... ..	400,000	140,000	54 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 0 0

It will be seen from the above that the Standard Bank of South Africa is considerably stronger in its reserves than any of the remaining banks, and speaking generally we should regard its most serious competitor as the National Bank of South Africa which occupies a peculiarly strong position in the new colonies arising in a large measure from certain privileges which the bank enjoyed under the Boer Government and which have been continued in another form under the present Government. Among the chief privileges was the right of a royalty on minting which was given up in exchange for the appointment of bankers to the Colonial Government for a term of years. The Bank of Africa has been steadily advancing and is, in common with the other banks, well managed. The remaining institutions are smaller, and the Natal Bank especially has been late in making the progress its excellent connexion warranted, having been too conservative in the past. Since the increase in capital a year or two ago a development has taken place and a number of branches have been opened in various parts of the country. It is a difficult matter to recommend any particular bank among these as their affairs are in our opinion most efficiently conducted and any business institution which has come through the harassing times of the past few years in South Africa successfully and without reduction of dividend may be fairly assumed to occupy a safe position. The great reserves of the Standard Bank command respect but the shares of the National Bank of South Africa have a special attraction inasmuch as they are fully paid and have no liability—an important point for the consideration of investors whose means may be limited and who, at the same time, require to obtain a fairly high yield commensurate with satisfactory security.

#### INSURANCE.

THE Scottish Amicable Life Assurance Society has so long been recognised as a typical mutual Life office, giving the maximum of benefits to its policy-holders, that it is curious to call to mind that when it was founded in 1826 it was deemed prudent to commence business with a proprietary guarantee, and that the shareholders were not finally paid off until seven years later, when their capital, with interest at 4 per cent., was returned to them. Apart from the pre-eminence of the society due to its exceptionally strong financial position and the excellent returns which it gives to its policy-holders, it has conferred a permanent boon upon assurers by having been the first to introduce the "minimum premium", or as it is now frequently called, the "discounted bonus" system of Life assurance. This



policy was introduced by the Scottish Amicable in 1854. It was assumed that the reversionary bonus on participating policies would be at the rate of 30 per cent. per annum on sums assured and previous bonuses. The value of these bonuses was discounted and allowed from the outset in reduction of premium. It says much for the permanent prosperity of the society that for a period of fifty years this rate of bonus has been maintained and recently increased, with the result that policy-holders have obtained their assurance at rates of premiums which are lower than those charged for without-profit policies, and have received bonuses in addition. It is perhaps difficult for anyone not familiar with Life assurance affairs to appreciate to the full such a record as this. It means that the investments have been so well handled, the medical selection of lives so carefully looked after, and the expenses of management so rigidly controlled, that the vicissitudes which have affected adversely so many other companies have left this society untouched. The report for last year shows that the volume of new business was well maintained, being greater than in any previous year, and showing an increase of more than 20 per cent. in the course of two years. It might naturally be expected that a considerable increase in new business would involve a larger expenditure, but on the contrary the expenses for 1904 were only 13.9 per cent. of the premium income, which is less than usual.

The Scottish Amicable is one of the comparatively few companies which hold funds sufficient to meet liabilities if interest is earned at only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.; while the rate actually realised is just over 4 per cent. The late depreciation in the value of gilt-edged securities has really proved a distinct benefit to the society, instead of involving, as in many other cases, a loss and consequent diminution of profits. The Stock Exchange securities to the amount of nearly £3,000,000 have a market value greater by about £108,000 than that at which they stand in the society's books, while the recent depreciation has enabled investments to be made in the best class of securities at prices which yield a high rate of interest. The society will make another valuation and distribution of bonuses at the end of the present year. It is quite obvious that it will not have to write off large amounts for depreciation in the value of securities, and that it will receive the full benefit to be derived from about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. per annum of its funds, this being the difference between the rate of interest actually earned and the rate assumed in valuing the liabilities. When an insurance company values its liabilities at  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. the present value of the premiums that will be paid in the future are usually valued at the same rate, with the result that the provision set aside for expenses is very small; but the Scottish Amicable adopts the unusual plan of valuing what it has to pay on a  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. basis and valuing what it has to receive on a  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. basis. The result is to add over £200,000 to the reserves and provide a contribution to surplus of 10 per cent. of the premium income. Add to these sources of profit a very favourable rate of mortality and it is found that the Scottish Amicable possesses sources of surplus which few, if any, other companies are able to equal. Everything points to undiminished prosperity, and the valuation at the end of the present year is practically certain to reveal a surplus sufficient to maintain, if not increase, the large bonuses declared on the last occasion. Intending policy-holders would always do well to take their policies in the Scottish Amicable. In certain ways they would be well advised to do so this year and thus become participating members before the next declaration of bonus.

#### MUSEUMS AND EXHIBITIONS.

THE problem of the proper administration and direction of national museums which has now to be faced in London will become, in the next few years, an acute one in the provinces also. The system of amateur corporation committees, guided, by academical advice, to buy pictures of the year, has very definitely failed; the Chantry Committee's evidence and report, and the disillusionments at Christie's as to the value of

popular favourites, are producing their effect, and in time there must arise a demand for competent and responsible directors of these institutions. The same thing applies to colonial galleries, where at present there is a good deal of searching of heart about the works that have been bought under the same academical guidance. The recently published Catalogue of the Birmingham Gallery\* shows what can be done by an energetic and competent director in whom the committee places its confidence. Meantime, by donation and bequest, several of the provincial galleries are extending their horizon and becoming better proportioned. At Aberdeen a large historical gallery of sculpture casts is to be opened early this month. Glasgow, by the good fortune of the Donald bequest, will obtain a fine collection of modern French and Dutch paintings, including two Millets (the "Going to Work" and the pastel of a Sheepfold at Night), and works by Corot, Rousseau and Daubigny. Thus at a stroke this gallery adds to its fine collection of ancient pictures what Dublin has been gallantly struggling to obtain. A large bequest of money has also fallen in, and it is to be hoped that an enlightened use will be made of this. Bradford has also a large sum to expend from the surplus of last year's exhibition. The effort made there to give a fair representation of current English art has had its echo in other centres. The last of a series of invitations to the two chief independent societies to exhibit in provincial centres is an arrangement very handsomely made by the Liverpool Institution, by which the Spring Exhibition of the New English Art Club will take place there in April.

In London also the general attitude has changed with almost bewildering rapidity. The keen interest shown in the Impressionist exhibition at the Grafton, the transformation of Rodin into a popular idol, and the crowds that pass through the Whistler Exhibition, if they do not, in the case of many of the worshippers, prove more than that the watchwords have changed, testify at least to a collapse of the official superstition. The Academy will have to pay now for the uses it has made of its prestige. It can no longer command recruits as freely as before; does not make or break careers, is merely the biggest and most indiscriminate market among many. If it is to regain a better position a radical change of constitution as well as of attitude will be necessary.

The danger of those big exhibiting associations is that they organise mediocrity, and organise it against talent. There is an exhibition now open at White-chapel that illustrates one chapter of the story. It is a collection of the art that was encouraged and discouraged fifty years ago. We need not press the case of Stevens, whose art was of so exalted a kind that its author was necessarily a lonely figure. But on the chosen ground of the Academy, that of illustration, it was the best of the illustrators who were banned. Of the Pre-Raphaelites, who brought freshness and intensity into illustration, Rossetti, Holman Hunt, Madox Brown were alienated, and Millais was very nearly driven out. It was not the critics, it was not the picture-buyers, it was not the public, who crowded round the pictures, who were the enemy, it was the artists of the Academy. Millais himself tells the tale. And what was the offence? In technique, in the general conception of a picture there was no violent break between Mulready's "Sonnet" and the early Pre-Raphaelite works. The offence lay in an intensity of character in the types chosen, in the "ugliness" of faces, the precision of drawing. It was this that made Millais' "Carpenter's Shop" "blasphemous" then, and keeps it sacred now. And this war is perpetual, between the character and beauty that lasts, and the pretty fashion that serves its moment and becomes nauseous afterwards.

Mr. Aitkin and his committee have brought together an exhibition that will repay more than one visit; it is impossible for a single article to deal with it in detail. One or two of its features are the "Morris Moore" by Stevens, Millais' "Mrs. Bischoffsheim", the charming child's portrait by Dyce that was at the Glasgow Exhibition; the strong head of Pettie by Chalmers, much work by the Pre-Raphaelites and their followers, more especially

\* Illustrated and annotated, 232 pages for sixpence.

Messrs. Arthur Hughes and Windus. Mr. Windus is the most remarkable artist of the so-called "Liverpool School",\* and ought to be represented in our national collection. Davis, the landscape-painter, also rises above a provincial reputation in work like the shining flats of his "Runcorn Gap" and the well-drawn woodland study on the opposite wall. Alfred Hunt early became a Londoner, and his better work in water colour is not illustrated here.

Another gallery that brings together material for the history of English art is Messrs. Shepherd's in King Street, St. James's. Here may always be found painting by the famous early masters, and also by men hardly known at all. In the present exhibition, among other things of interest, are two pictures of puzzling ascription, a view of Stonehenge, and a marine. The "Stonehenge" is Girtin-like in design, broad and solemn in chiaroscuro, with a fine sky, in rich pigment of Wilsonian type. But for an imperfect expression of scale in the stones, the picture would be a grand one. The "Gale" is like Turner's translation of Vandyck into grander light and shade, but here again the waves are Wilsonian in convention and touch.

Messrs. Carfax have opened a new gallery, much better lit than the old, at 24 Bury Street, St. James's, and filled it with a collection of pictures and sketches lent by Mr. Sargent. The portrait at the end of the gallery, though familiar to many of Mr. Sargent's admirers, has not before been exhibited in England. It is one of his finest pieces of drawing and design. The striking character of the model, the flow of line from the forehead past the sensitive nostril, down the face, neck, arms and body has been searched out and pressed close, and the insistence on black and white in the colour is equally part of the vivid conception of design accepted and dressed by the lady herself. The other two oil studies have been seen before at the New English Art Club, but are well worth seeing again; one for its firm and living modelling, the other for its sense of fantastic character and subtle movement. Along with these are a number of water colours of remarkable force and vivacity. One or two, like the Doge's Palace and the Spanish Courtyard with Soldiers, have more delicacy of colour than the rest; all are wonderful in the power of summary expression of architecture and other forms with a few dashes of the brush. It is not the work of a brooder and dreamer; it is more like an athletic exercise with shape and space and light.

Mr. Francis James has brought together at the Dutch Gallery in Grafton Street a number of his flower-studies in water colour. They are distinguished by the effort to give definite drawing and modelling of the blossoms and leaves by direct brush-work without fumbling or stippling. He works in a very positive key, and encounters, therefore, the difficulty of rendering colour at once vivid and deep, particularly in the green of leaves. But he is increasingly successful, as the result of long practice, in combining delicacy or force with precision. Some of the wallflowers, anemones and other groups tell with wonderful resonance against dark backgrounds; in other cases a blossom is distinguished by almost imperceptible nuances of tone from its background, and yet takes its shape and place.

D. S. MACCOLL.

#### "THE THIEVES' COMEDY."

BRITISH drama is a thing rather of the future than of the present. It is a matter of seeds rather than of blossoms. I hope to see, within a generation, blossoms all over the town. Meanwhile, it is chiefly in Sloane Square that I find the seeds. Little and devious though the Court Theatre may seem to one who regards it in a purely materialistic light, it is to the eye of imagination the least insignificant theatre in London, and is of all our theatres the nearest to the vital centre of things. The little seeds sown there, sometimes by the Stage Society, sometimes by Mr. Vedrenne and Mr. Barker, matter far more than all the gorgeous parterres of blossoms displayed elsewhere. For those blossoms are of wax—wax with nothing but fresh

coats of paint to hide its antiquity, and with nothing at all to disguise its unreality. British blossoms, no doubt; and the seeds at the Court Theatre are mostly imported from abroad. But a natural exotic is better than a blossom of home-made wax. And it is a thing to be valued not merely for its own sake: it is valuable also by reason of the good effects that are likely—are sure—to come of it. It would be gratifying to feel that we needed no examples in dramatic art. But that we do need them is obvious. It is also obvious that we might, once we had taken a start, develop a drama quite as good as the modern drama of (let us say) Germany. Outside dramatic art, we have writers of greater distinction than any writers in Germany; nor is our crop likely to languish. As for audiences, there is no reason to suppose that German citizens are on a higher level of intelligence than our own citizens. The mischief is this: whilst in Germany the drama is taken seriously, and the citizens go to the theatre with their wits about them, in England the theatre is regarded simply as a place for fatuousness. If the British drama became a serious drama (and, need I say? seriousness does not connote dullness—does not, indeed, exclude the most rollicking fun), then, you may be sure, British citizens would patronise it in an appropriate frame of mind. The way to set about creating a serious drama is to attract to dramaturgy the talented writers who now hold aloof, supposing that dramaturgy is a kind of dark magic which only a very few peculiar persons can master (and they only by life-long devotion to it), and that in no case could it be made a medium for the expression of anything but crude artificiality. Such a play as "The Thieves' Comedy" (a translation from Hauptmann's "Biberpelz") is a salutary refutation of these fallacies. I trust that you have already gone to see it, and to profit by it. If not, there are matinées next Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday. You might do worse than go to all three.

The play is solely a play of character and (to use a wickedly overworked word which I would gladly spare) "atmosphere". It has no story. It has but a few anecdotes, similar to each other, peeping out here and there from a presentment of uneventful every-day life. Frau Wolff, a peasant, steals a deer from the neighbouring forest. That is one anecdote. Here is another: Frau Wolff makes her husband steal some logs of wood that lie stacked outside the house where her daughter is employed as servant. A third anecdote is that a furcoat is stolen, at Frau Wolff's instigation, from a certain Herr Kruger, and is sold by her to a pilot, who has acted as her "fence" in other thefts. Nothing much happens. Frau Wolff is not found out. The pilot is not found out. They easily bamboozle the local magistrate. They may be found out later. The play has no really conclusive end, just as it has no really initial beginning. It is but an arbitrary intrusion on a cottage interior, made with the sole intent that we shall have a good look at the inmates; and, so soon as we have had a sufficiently good look, out we go again, leaving them just as we found them. The play, which was a very great success in Germany, differs from the fashionable British play in that its technique is very loose and simple, whilst the technique necessary to a fashionable British play is very tight and artificial. An old-fashioned British critic (the fashionable one has forged far ahead of the fashion in drama) would probably say that Hauptmann had no technique at all. This, of course, would be a mistake. To make a set of characters reveal themselves naturally on the stage is a task that involves a considerable amount of technical skill. But certainly it is not so hard and frightening and esoteric a task as to invent and carry through a whole evening a single story, with a series of sharp climaxes occurring at regular intervals, and with a slick solution to finish up with. It is because the power to do that can only be acquired through years of study, supplementing a natural aptitude which is very rare indeed, that the vast majority of our best men give dramaturgy so wide a berth, leaving it almost entirely in the hands of men who, if they devoted to any other kind of writing such intellect and knowledge of life and sense of style as they possess, would fall somewhere between the twentieth and the twenty-fifth rank. In "The Thieves' Comedy" there is no technique that

\* A book has recently appeared by Mr. H. C. Marillier giving an account of these artists, "The Liverpool School of Painters" (Murray). Its accuracy has been questioned in matters of detail, but it brings together the main facts about a loosely associated group.



might not be acquired by any man of active and adaptable mind. What makes the play remarkable and delightful is Hauptmann's humour, and his knowledge of a certain phase in actual life, and his sense of human character. There are among us many writers not less well equipped in these respects than Hauptmann. Let them take courage of his success. Peculiarly local though his characters are, and much as they must lose through being interpreted in the English language by English ladies and gentlemen, "The Thieves' Comedy" is undoubtedly a success here, inasmuch as nobody seeing it—nobody, of however mean an intelligence—can fail to be amused and interested by it. How much greater the chance of success for a similar play about life in England!

Of the company engaged at the Court Theatre almost every one makes a "hit". The reason is simple. Every part is a good part. Every character has been drawn, with a sure hand, from life itself. Every character is real, life-sized, full-blooded. People often complain of the dearth of trustworthy mimes in England. The answer is that so few of our mimes are entrusted with anything. Bricks can be made without straw; but the task ought not to be set. A mime may, by dint of creative genius, infuse life into a dummy part. But let us not condemn our mimes generally as worthless because they cannot all so far transcend what may reasonably be expected of them as to make good the deficiencies in what may reasonably be expected of the dramatists. It is quite true that our mimes are inferior to the Latins in some respects. They do not, nowadays, declaim verse so well. That is because the tradition of declamation has been lost. Let the tradition be found again, and all will be well. Our mimes never will, on the other hand, equal the Latins in display of passionate emotion, or in lightness of comedic touch. The reasons are that we are not by nature passionately emotional (or, at any rate, are averse from expressing our feelings), and that lightness of touch is not one of our national characteristics. But the art of acting does not depend wholly on lightness or on violence. It depends also on many other qualities; and in these qualities our mimes, when they have the chance, show themselves to be as well endowed as any mimes elsewhere. It is difficult, always, to apportion praise or blame justly between the dramatist and his interpreter. I have often heard this or that mime complain, and justify his complaint, that he has been contemned for not achieving that which the dramatist had given him no chance of achieving. I do not think I ever heard a mime complain of not having been contemned for not having taken chances which the dramatist had offered him. But I have heard many a mime make this complaint in reference to many another mime. A good part: good notices from the critics, however bad the performance. A bad part, however well played: that absence of gush, or that modified gush, which is the critics' nearest approach to blame. Such is the view of "the profession"; and it is, I fear, a true one. I commend it to my colleagues, for general consideration. Meanwhile, I am wondering how much credit is really due to the mimes in this particular instance at the Court Theatre. Miss Rosina Filippi, above them all, triumphs. How much of that triumph is due to Hauptmann, how much to herself? Could any actress have failed in a character so fully and so truly created as Frau Wolff has been by Hauptmann created? Could any actress have got more out of that character—realised it more fully? Could any other actress than Miss Filippi have taken so firm a grasp of it, and of us? To the last two questions I am bound to reply that I think not. So, when all deductions have been made over to Hauptmann, Miss Filippi has still a really very good notice indeed. Mr. James Hearn, as the husband of Frau Wolff, and Miss Sydney Fairbrother, as a little daughter of Frau Wolff, and Mr. Edmund Gwenn, as the pilot, and indeed all the members of the cast, have very good notices, too. All understand their several characters, and make (so far as I can judge) the most of them. Yet none tries to triumph singly at the expense of the others. All are in the picture. A signal virtue, this; and especially needful here, in a play which is so like an actual picture.

MAX BEERBOHM.

#### RELINQUIT.

PAIN, which is sweet love's shadow,  
Steals through my heart to-night;  
And the world appears hard and cruel  
Though the stars above are bright.

But now I know we are lovers  
From the touch of that hidden hand;  
Joy comes like the crimson morning,  
But love is a twilight land.

Space and primordial darkness,  
The Infinite circles round;  
And our souls shrink away in wonder,  
But the centre of all is found!

GEORGE IVES.

#### YACHTING PROSPECTS.

ANYONE who has been once badly infected by a whiff of the tar brush suffers from an intermittent disease curable only by salt water, and this is the time of year when it generally makes its reappearance. The preliminaries of fitting out, including the work in the store, the nicely cleaned bright blocks, the newly varnished wood-work of the deck fittings, the renovated and shining boats and the brass-work all bright and clean [ready to be shipped into their places and the general sense of busyness—with the smell of the fresh varnish and new rope, serve to excite the longing of the keen yachtsman to be off again to his old cruising ground, or in search of the pleasures of the sea further afloat; and the weather be hanged! Naturally interest first centres around one's own ship, but after putting all preparations in order and arranging for their due completion, thoughts stray in the direction of curiosity as to what others may be doing; whom we shall again meet this year afloat, and what excitements are in store for us in the way of racing?

On 17 September last I endeavoured to direct attention in this Review to some of the reasons which I feared were to a greater or less extent responsible for the exceedingly bad season of 1904, and I have been trying to discover if the prospects of 1905 give any encouragement to the hope that things will improve; but inquiries from Southampton, from Glasgow, from Liverpool, and indeed from Cowes are not encouraging. My informant from Cowes seems to be of the opinion that the prospect is a "little better" than last year, there is a certain amount of work going on, but it is mainly in the nature of repairs and alterations to old yachts. At the same time some vessels have been commissioned and gone abroad. On all sides however building of new vessels is excessively slack, and as to racing vessels is practically non-existent.

The result is plainly seen in the published programmes in which class racing, except with regard to the small boats and restricted classes, seems at a standstill. The information from the Solent only points to a chance of the 36-footers undergoing a revival in the coming season. An endeavour is being made on the Clyde to induce the 52-footers to come out and show themselves, with what success of course remains to be seen. Apparently the offer of a race under the Clyde clubs from that port to Cowes is not being enthusiastically taken up by other contiguous clubs. And, by the way, the two matches suggested from the Solent to the Clyde and Clyde to the Solent have been the cause of no small "pother" in the German press devoted to yachting. Our German friends have found that these races have been timed so as to interfere, as they put it, with the Kiel meeting, and feeling has become rather warm over the question, so much so that the Germans have accused English yachtsmen of arranging this race on purpose to damage their meeting. I need hardly say that no such intention was in the minds of anyone responsible for the arrangement of those races. As a matter of fact there are complaints every year on

account of the clashing of the dates of our own fixtures, and for the ensuing season the Plymouth Yacht Club appears likely to receive some criticism in this respect, on account of the alteration of the date of their regatta from the end of the season, which heretofore has been usual to the end of July. The fact of the matter is that the disappearance of the large-class racer has altered the complexion of the whole matter, and in order to keep up the regattas prizes now have to be offered under handicaps for the cruising class which in the old days of "Ailsa", "Satanita", "Britannia", and the "Valkyries", "Bona", &c., were almost entirely neglected. The German Emperor encouraged this class to visit Kiel, providing a race to that port and plenty of sport when there. Now that the class boat has for the time being disappeared English clubs must fall back on cruisers and ex-racers in order to make any kind of a show, and are thus probably competing with the Kiel regatta. German yachtsmen can hardly blame either of the clubs for taking those steps, or the owners of yachts for entering in home races. We on the other hand should be glad to see some German yachts taking part in regattas on this side of the North Sea. Finally, with regard to racing this year it may, I think, be safely predicted that we shall be treated to nothing new.

It is highly probable however that those interested in marine motor engines will see some considerable developments in this direction. I see it stated that there will be a 200-h.p. Mercedes racing launch at Monaco capable of a mean speed of 28½ knots. Apparently a considerable number of craft of this description will attend the Monaco meeting, and there is evidently a very lively competition in this class of aquatic sport. It is not improbable in this connexion that some people will be inclined to bless the transfer of motor-record breaking from the high-roads to the sea. There is not the least doubt that these high-speed boats give room for much interesting experiment both as to the engines and the lines and general design of the boats themselves, for the conditions of actual displacement vary wonderfully with the increase of speed. I see an account of a motor manufactured by the German Daimler firm designed to give off 500 horse-power, and Mr. Ferdinand Forest has built one of similar power with eighteen cylinders. It would seem that if the motor industry is still to be considered as an infant, it may certainly be said to be progressing favourably; and by the way, why should not home-made alcohol be used instead of petrol? But Exeter Hall and the Excise laws answer, No! The word alcohol shocks the former; to the latter it savours of revenue, a chance not to be easily foregone. The advent of the internal combustion engine may however change many things.

R. WILLIAMS BULKELEY.

#### SCIENCE IN ROMANCE.

JULES VERNE was not exactly the creator of the romance in which a certain treatment of science constitutes the chief interest, but he was its best known exponent. Edgar Allan Poe's handling of pseudo-science was prior in time to Jules Verne, and he was probably the father of that kind of literature which has its still living practitioners in Dr. Conan Doyle and Mr. H. G. Wells. Poe was infinitely the superior of any of his successors in genius and literary power, and he employed such science as he wanted for his purpose with more grotesquely horrible effects even than Mr. Wells has done in some of his psychological stories. He certainly surpassed Dr. Conan Doyle in his employment of it in the detective story, as will be admitted by all who remember his elaborate inferences from physical facts in one of his cases where the victim of a murder is found in the river, and the question is whether or not she was murdered before being cast into the water. He also has a balloon story as impossible as the famous one of Jules Verne, but in it again there is more of the serious import and the real issues which we look for in literature than anything which Jules Verne ever did or could have done. The almost life-long métier of Jules Verne was the pseudo scientific novel, but he was the most

superficial of all who have practised the art. Not that he got up his science less carefully than others; but it was always a physical and mechanical set of facts with which he dealt that did not expound or illustrate the really interesting problems of life with which some branches of science are so closely associated in every thinking person's mind. If Swift had devised a journey to the moon as he devised Gulliver's journeys to Lilliput or Brobdingnag his chief concern would not have been in the mechanical or physical difficulties to be overcome before the start could be made, or with difficulties en route, or with the perils which awaited the traveller by the mere fact of his reaching the end of his voyage. That is to say, Jules Verne left out of his scheme the human, the moral, the political, the religious, the social questions which are of real importance to thoughtful men and women.

Even Mr. Rider Haggard suggests, in such characters as "She", which appear wholly fantastic, certain speculations; for example, as to the means and influences, spiritual or otherwise, which are or may be used for the acquisition of power by men over their fellows in society. And so Mr. Wells has definite and serious purposes in writing his stories such as the "Wonderful Visit" or "The Time Machine" or "The Island of Dr. Moreau". He is didactic, or satirical, or reflective, on the larger topics of human nature or society, on ways of living, or thinking, and his science positive or pseudo is only a means to an end. Dr. Moreau's experiments have much more significance as prophecies than that vaguely prophetic notion of Jules Verne as to the possibility of the submarine.

So that Jules Verne's stories were essentially boys' and girls' books. There was no moral; and if sometimes the science, or the impossible science suggested cleverly by the ingenious writer, were too difficult for the young reader, he or she would take it for granted and pass on, not the less interested in the story because the technical difficulty had not been grasped. A French lady has informed us that at eleven years of age she had a "rage" for Jules Verne and read fifteen of his books in a month. Evidently the interest there was not in the anticipations of a future science founded upon the positively ascertained facts of the present. Nor in any other of the serious questions which alone can furnish mental pabulum to the mature. It was simply in a world of wonders, the wonders of the fairy and gnome world, though without the personality of the little people and the analogues of the passions and virtues and failings of humanity which make fairy-stories interesting to the adult. There was nothing in this that was above the intellect of a boy or girl except the difficulties of the scientific facts or pseudo-explanations, which were just about as puzzling to upgrown readers unless they happened to be particularly well read in science.

As many men and women as boys and girls have been puzzled, we are sure, by the meridian difficulty in the "Voyage Round the World". And yet Jules Verne's treatment of the scientific romance puts his books in the category of those suitable for boys' reading; while it is difficult to conceive young people taking interest in the other books we have mentioned or in such a modern Utopia of the electric era as "The Coming Race". It is curious that a Frenchman should have treated science with such naïveté, and that he should have been content to turn it to no other purpose than amusement and the delectation of boys and maidens. It was not in this mood that some other novelists of his nationality turned their attention to the science of physiology or psychology, and studied the abnormal manifestations of the nervous system under the conditions of modern life. In such topics as heredity, the gruesome stories of the destinies of families determined by physical and mental organisation, Jules Verne was not interested. In the novels of this class there is perhaps more science, some of it very doubtful, than romance. Verne's stories as adventures were at least not spoiled by being over-weighted with detail pseudo or serious. And here we may notice the great difficulty in certain scientific romances, from which Jules Verne escaped by his method. We can never be sure that a novelist who writes for our



entertainment principally, or he had better not write at all, is duly qualified to observe, portray, and make the deductions he does make from the facts he studies or professes to study. We have to take that on trust in the characters in which he embodies his ideas. Moreover we cannot know whether he has not manipulated his observations to suit the purposes of his story. The writer of a psychological romance is in the same position as the writer of the historical novel so-called. He may deem himself at liberty to alter wherever it is necessary either for his plot or for the interest of his characters. This process is easier to detect in the historical novel than in that which professes to study the secret workings of the mental or physical functions as the clue to the actions of the characters and the dénouement of the story. It is not easy in such a realm of mystery as the physiological and psychological sciences to check the author, and to convict him of insincerity in dealing with his material if his attitude has really been more literary than scientific.

What seems at first sight a lesson in the mysteries of human nature and life may be merely a trick of the author from which we have no profit, and which may indeed seriously mislead us if we should take our science from novels. There is very good reason for holding that the less the stage or the novel has to do with the material of the medical profession the better. The writers are not competent in the first place, they are not to be trusted to know what they describe; and their method is not trustworthy, because the exigencies of story-telling always tempt to falsification of the material. But Jules Verne may be read without any doubts or hesitations. He deals with the physical and the superficially physical as we may say; with such notions of matter and physical action as are familiar to the ordinary man. The more modern and refined physical mysteries perhaps were not familiar to him; or they were all too new for him to have mastered the secret of turning to account in fiction such conceptions as the electron, or the latest theories of the ether, or such matters as radium or the X-rays, and so on. Perhaps these ideas are too recondite to serve as a basis for fictional manipulation. The ordinary reader has grasped the idea of the bacilli and bacteria, and they have figured in several stories; but even wireless telegraphy has not yet apparently accustomed him to the subtler physical mysteries. Gravity and attraction everyone thinks he understands and the romancist like Jules Verne can start from a familiar topic and a jumping-off place. What is fact and what is fiction can be recognised at a glance. It is a simple form of art, and requires no profundities of scientific knowledge. When one thinks of the serious incongruities, the mixture of fact and fancies which are not much better than distorted facts, and therefore of a low order of imagination, we cannot think that the scientific romance is a thing to be cultivated. On the whole it is better when we want science to read science; and when we want fiction not to read a composite thing in which the science diverts us from the fiction, and the fiction is not more imaginary than the pseudo-science. The scientific romance is therefore crude and we do not think it has much of a future. We hope not.

#### THE BLACKCOCK'S ECSTASIES.

EVERYONE has heard of the antics and martial displays of the capercailzie and blackcock, to which, in the breeding season, the silent pine-forests of Scandinavia are witness. I have seen them both, and the behaviour of the capercailzie—perhaps because I was able to get a better view of it—has seemed to me the more remarkable of the two. A blackcock when at once showing himself off before the hens—concealed amidst the heather round about—and challenging all rival males, presents the most extraordinary appearance. He rushes over the ground, leaps into the air, descends and leaps again, clawing, at each spring, and hissing, in a way that more suggests an angry cat than a bird—though I do not know that a cat ever behaved in quite such a manner. The hissing sound—a sort of “tchu-

weesh”—is very marked indeed, there is an angry vehemence about it which surprises one each time, whilst another note—a loud, full, musical roo-cook-ooty repeated many times till the pure morning air vibrates and trembles—is wonderfully expressive of bold, martial defiance. This last is uttered on the ground, as the other usually is in the air, and each time, after having so expressed himself, the bird raises his head, which has been held down, looks round with, as it were, an indignant start, half spreads his wings, fans out and arches his tail, and makes a rush forward, with a leap at the end of it. Now is the time for another male to enter the arena, in which case there will be either a very fierce combat or, as I have witnessed with surprise and disappointment, an ignominious retreat on the part of the challenger, should a bird of greater prowess appear.

The capercailzie is as pugnacious—and I have no doubt also, on occasions, as discreet—as the blackcock. Still more remarkable, however, is the way in which the cock calls the hens together to witness his performances. He flies into the summit of one of the tall firs that make the bulk of the forests where he lives, and, sitting there, gives vent to a number of peculiar sounds which do not at all suggest either a bird or a wild lonely place. First come several hard wooden clicks which sound more like the uncorking of so many champagne bottles than anything else in nature, and these being followed by a curious guggling in the throat, as though wine were being poured out, as a consequence, one can hardly help thinking that a picnic is going on somewhere near. At two or three in the morning, indeed, and with snow all about, one may feel an assurance that this awful thing cannot be, but the sounds are strongly suggestive of such prosaic matters—at least to my thinking, though I never cherished the idea. The loudest and most unmistakable click, however—which I believe would take in anybody who did not know what it was—comes at the end of the liquid, throatal noise and with it, or shortly afterwards, the performance ends for a time. Whilst making these odd sounds, the capercailzie throws back its head, shuts its eyes, and during the latter part of the guggling is in such a state of ecstasy that one may then approach the tree, even over the open ground, without being observed, or, if observed, attended to. In stalking the bird accordingly—which I have done, but only for the purposes of observation, with a Norwegian forester—the plan is to run forward, at this period, and stop dead upon the final click, running again, on the next occasion, and so getting nearer and nearer. During these bloodless stalks, the forester—a man whose whole life was spent amidst such scenes—would sometimes press his nose between his fingers and thumb, and say “au, au”, in a low guttural tone. This was an imitation of the note of the hen capercailzie as she sits amidst the undergrowth of the forest, listening to the vocal display of the cock, and on hearing it the latter would, of course, be likely to become more excited and therefore less suspicious of danger. When he thinks that a sufficient number of hens are collected in the neighbourhood, the male flies down from the tree, and begins to strut about the ground, expanding and drooping his wings, fanning his tail, and ruffling out his feathers, much after the fashion of a turkey-cock, whilst the hens, we are told, run excitedly round him, as though inviting him to make his choice. This last or penultimate act of the drama I have not been so lucky as to see but all the rest I have seen, though not for long or in circumstances of easy observation. The noise which the bird made—I think by the shooting out of his wing feathers as he made each of his haut swelling runs over the ground—was a marked feature of the performance, and here, again, I was reminded of the turkey-cock. Thus whilst the blackcock leaps and springs about, as though possessed with a devil, there is a solemn pompousness in the ground-display of the capercailzie which imparts to it quite a different character. It was only for a few moments, indeed, and that in the dim grey light of the morning, that I saw the birds upon the ground, and, according to what I was told, it was extremely difficult to get any better view of them. I the more admire, therefore, the good fortune of some who, from their very

elaborate and precise accounts, would seem to have seen it all, sitting in an easy-chair hard by.

I have read somewhere—I cannot now remember where—that during some portion of its performances in the tree, the capercailzie is, for an anatomical reason which I have forgotten, stone deaf, and that this accounts for the facility with which it can then be approached. It is however only during the final ecstasy that the sportsman or poacher makes his final rush forward, and that the bird does not then regard him, either through the channel of sight or sound, requires no special explanation. In ecstasy one neither sees nor hears external objects, as in my school-days I had some rare opportunities—unvalued, of course, at the time—of observing. A certain boy, for instance, the tallest, handsomest, strongest, and as I now believe, both spiritually and intellectually, the most gifted amongst us, was in the habit, at not very infrequent intervals, of gazing upwards with clasped hands, and such an expression of exalted joy as at the sight of something inconceivably lovely, that I can never forget it, and to this day I seem to see him as though he were beside me. At these times our young seer, who, if I remember, may have been some fourteen or fifteen years of age, was as though departed from this world. It was impossible to attract his attention, though, as may well be imagined, attempts were sometimes made to do so, and on returning, as from a dream, to mundane things, he seemed unaware of what he had been doing—for besides the clasped hands and beatific expression, his lips had all the while been moving in fervid utterance which I could often hear, but never catch the meaning of. When questioned on the subject he would smile, and though he never returned an answer, yet he never seemed surprised at the question, which in some way he always avoided. It seems to me odd, now, that this boy was not more teased and pestered about so strange a peculiarity than he was, for it would appear sometimes at the most inopportune moments, as in class or in the midst of a game. He was, however, much liked, and, though never seeming to care much about it, excelled in all things athletic. This, no doubt, would go far towards explaining his freedom from persecution, but he owed it as much, I believe, to the feeling of wonder—as akin to awe, perhaps, as anything a schoolboy can feel—which his strange appearance, when thus influenced, used to arouse in us. It was, indeed, a very impressive, and, as I now know, a very beautiful sight. As to the cause of a thing so strange, or strange-seeming, I am, I dare say, as much in the dark now—though in a manner more proper to my present age—than I was then; but it has at least enabled me to understand how a capercailzie in a state of ecstasy might be approached, even though it were neither deaf nor blind anatomically. The same remark applies to the ostrich, when it rolls on the ground before the hen, in a way which I have elsewhere described. I have often, at such times, gone up to one and seized it by the neck.

EDMUND SELOUS.

#### MOTORING.

IN Paris it is impossible for even the most casual observer to avoid noticing the way in which the automobile has entered into the daily life of the city. We are perhaps still too prone to regard automobilism as a pleasing recreation and do not yet fully realise that the ultimate destiny to be fulfilled by the motor-car is a useful one. That this side of the question has not fully revealed itself to the average British car-owner is evidenced by the number of cars at present running in London alone fitted with—considering our climatic conditions—entirely unsuitable bodies. Perhaps the owner realising this by bitter experience has had fitted a tent-like structure of canvas which he proudly refers to as his “Cape cart hood”. This form of covering is designed for vehicles which are intended to travel at certainly not more than fifteen miles an hour and for its purpose is undoubtedly excellent, although its most ardent admirers would hardly advocate its use as a substitute for a brougham. When applied

to a high-speed automobile it is draughty and leaky, although when folded down it stows in a small compass and is unobjectionable for touring. A double-purpose car, however, that is to say a car intended for use as a town vehicle and for touring, is in our opinion an impossibility, and this fact the Parisians have realised for some time, with the result that nearly all the cars in Paris are now fitted with bodies either permanently closed or having really efficient means of temporarily sheltering the occupants from the weather. The most popular form of body appears to be a side-entrance limousine with the roof strengthened to carry luggage and brought well forward over the driver's seat. Of course these cars must always be driven by a mechanic, and this is an objection frequently raised by the British owner against such a form of body, but it must be borne in mind that cars so fitted are intended solely for town use, where it is inconceivable that the owner should ever desire to take the helm. On the other hand touring cars in France invariably have the body weights cut down to a minimum, and seldom is any provision for shelter secured, in fact everything which tends to militate against high speed is dispensed with.

Another point which must strike the visitor to the French capital is the absence of public motor omnibuses. Having regard to the fact that heavy vehicle trials or “poids lourds” were inaugurated at Versailles with a view to investigating the utility of these conveyances at a time when the English industry was scarcely started, and that these trials have been repeated at intervals, it is obvious that the exponents of this branch of the industry are not yet fully satisfied as to the desirability of such vehicles. As far as this country is concerned we cannot help feeling that the preliminary prospectuses of several proposed motor omnibus companies are, to say the least of it, too sanguine in tone and that the prognostications of their promoters are scarcely justified by facts. It seems to have been specially the misfortune of the British motor industry to suffer from the operations of the company promoter, and now that the motor omnibus has been gradually evolved by prolonged experimenting, it seems as if the fruition of these experiments will be indefinitely postponed. The truth is that the only really satisfactory way to introduce the motor omnibus is the one which has been already adopted by more than one well-known company in the metropolis—that is to say, cautious and gradual replacement of existing horse-drawn vehicles by self-propelled ones supplied by firms who understand the conditions involved. It will be readily appreciated that such firms are few in number and moreover at present are completely full up with orders from existing companies such as the London General Omnibus Company. The result will be, therefore, that all the proposed companies will be entirely dependent upon the efforts of new and untried firms, and even if the initial difficulties inseparable from the inauguration of a new system of traction, such as the training of a capable staff and other details of management are overcome, the end can only be fiasco, and not only will the motor-omnibus movement be prejudiced but the whole industry also is bound to suffer.

#### BRIDGE.

OF the making of books on bridge there seems to be no end. The latest addition to the already over-long list is a work entitled “The Complete Bridge Player”, by “Cut-Cavendish”. The title is somewhat ambitious, but the pseudonym, “Cut”-Cavendish, is appropriate, as the book is little more than a collection of cuttings and extracts, slightly paraphrased, from the well-known text-book on the subject, one particular publication being especially favoured in this respect.

The fact is that bridge literature has been overdone. The subject is a narrow one, inasmuch as the methods of play of the various experts differ on comparatively few and unimportant points. So much has been written and said about the game during the last two years that it is now almost impossible for a new author to strike



out a fresh line, or to say anything that has not been already said over and over again. Cut-Cavendish takes his readers over the old familiar ground by the usual beaten tracks, without evolving any original ideas, or throwing any fresh light on the game.

The last two articles having been devoted to the No Trump declaration, we will now turn our attention to the original declaration of a red suit by the dealer.

There are certain hands which admit of no doubt as to the suit to be declared; these need not be discussed. It is nearly always right to declare hearts when holding four honours, as the honour score of 64 is too valuable an asset to be lightly given up, also hearts should be declared in preference to diamonds when holding cards of nearly equal value in the two suits. A good heart is a very sound call, but there is no greater pitfall in bridge than a doubtful or light heart hand.

Many players seem utterly unable to realise this, and no amount of experience teaches them. A genuine heart hand should contain five probable tricks, and a good rule to remember is that four probable tricks is the very lowest strength on which hearts should ever be declared. By five probable tricks is meant such a hand as

Hearts—Ace, queen, 9, 8, 3.  
Diamonds—King, 7, 4.  
Clubs—10, 3.  
Spades—Queen, knave, 4.

With this hand the dealer might reckon on three tricks in hearts, one in diamonds, and one in spades. The five tricks are by no means certain, but he would be justified in expecting to win five tricks with an ordinary placing of the cards.

Ace, king, queen, and two other hearts also represent five probable tricks, and hearts should always be declared on that strength, even with no other card higher than a 9, the dealer's partner being certainly to be trusted to win two or three other tricks in the other suits.

Some players are very fond of making what they are pleased to call a "defensive" red suit declaration. They will declare hearts on such a hand as

Hearts—King, knave, 8, 6, 2.  
Diamonds—Knave, 7, 5.  
Clubs—10, 8, 4.  
Spades—7, 6.

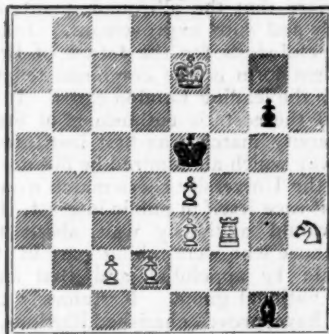
their argument being that the hand is worth nothing unless hearts are trumps. Never was there a more fallacious argument. Certainly the hand is worth next to nothing unless hearts are trumps, but it is worth very little even when hearts are trumps, and yet such a player will voluntarily fix the value of the trump suit at its highest point, besides depriving his unhappy partner of the opportunity of declaring a good suit if he has one. The very utmost value of the above hand is three tricks, consequently, in order to win the odd trick, the dealer's partner is expected to do more than the dealer himself, without the option of making a declaration. Again, six hearts headed by the 9 or 10, and no other elements of strength in the hand, is worth, at the very outside, three tricks, yet this is a declaration that one sees made every day. If the long suit in either of the above-mentioned hands was spades instead of hearts, there might be some sense in the dealer snatching at the declaration, so as to make the value of the game as cheap as possible, but there can be no sense in his voluntarily fixing the trick value at its highest point, when he knows that one of the two hands that he has to play is a bad one. Somehow, five hearts, whatever the value of them, seem to have a subtle fascination for some players, and they cannot bear to pass the declaration in such a case.

As it has become a recognised fact that fairly light No Trump declarations pay in the long run, so it has become clearly established among knowledgeable players that to declare hearts without reasonable justification is the high road to bridge perdition.

## CHESS.

PROBLEM 6. Specially contributed by  
R. COLLINSON.

Black 3 pieces.



White 7 pieces.

White to mate in three moves.

PROBLEM 7, BY S. LOYD. White: 8 pieces. K—QB1, R—Q2, Q—KR3, Kts—QKt2 and QB7, P's—QR3, K3 and QKt6. Black: 8 pieces. K—QB6, Q—QB4, Kts—QR4 and K4, B—QB3, P's—QKt2, QKt6 and Q6. White mates in two moves.

Solutions to the above will be duly acknowledged.

Key to Problem 5: Q—K2.

Game played in the Lancashire Championship  
Tournament.

## QUEEN'S GAMBIT ACCEPTED.

White	Black	White	Black
T. Kelly	T. A. Farron	T. Kelly	T. A. Farron
1. P—Q4	P—Q4	7. Castles	P—QKt3
2. P—QB4	P×P	8. Q—K2	B—Kt2
3. Kt—KB3	Kt—KB3	9. R—Q1	QKt—Q2
4. P—K3	P—K3	10. P—QKt3	P—QB3
5. Kt—B3	B—K2	11. B—Kt2	Q—B2
6. B×P	Castles	12. QR—B1	QR—B1

Having accepted the gambit, the logical continuation would have been, as early as possible, P—QB4 attacking White's QP. The open QB file, which is one of the main objects of this opening, would not then be so much under the control of White's pieces.

13. P—K4 P—B4

Now, this move is too late, because White can continue P—Q5 as in the game.

14. P—Q5	P×P	19. Q—Q3	QR—Q1
15. P×P	B—Q3	20. B×P	Kt—K4
16. Q—B2	P—QR3	21. Kt×Kt	B×Kt
17. P—QR4	KR—K1	22. Kt—Kt5	Q—Q2
18. P—KR3	P—KR3		

By playing 19QR—Q1, Black expects that White's Q's pawn must fall, when the game would be equal. Mr. Kelly here notes that "Black is at the parting of the ways. He would get the worst of it if he allowed the exchange of Q's by 22. . . QB×B; 23. Kt×Q, B×Q; 24. B×B, R×B, because the Q's pawn cannot be taken. Black's problem is to find the best square for the Q. This is K2, whereupon 23. QB×B, B×B; 24. B×Kt, Q×B, leaves white with a weak passed P and a pinned Kt."

23. QB×B	R×B	35. P—KKt4	Kt—Kt2
24. B×B	Q×B	36. Q—Kt3	P×P
25. P—Q6	R—Kt4	37. P×P	K—R2
26. P—B3	Q—Q2	38. R—KKt1	R—KKt1
27. K—R2	Kt—K1	39. Q—K5	Q—Q1
28. R—B2	R—Kt3	40. Kt—B3	R—K1
29. QR—Q2	K—B1	41. Q—Kt3	R—Kt1
30. Q—K4	K—Kt1	42. Kt—K4	Kt—R4
31. P—B4	R—K3	43. Q×R ch	Q×Q
32. Q—B3	R—Kt3	44. R×Q	K×R
33. P—B5	R—B3	45. Kt×R ch	Kt×Kt
34. R—Q5	P—KKt3	46. P—Q7	Resigns

White's conduct of the game from the 25th move is marked by beautiful precision, and the methods by

which Black's resources have been exhausted is worth studying.

For over thirty years Boat-race week has been associated with 'Varsity and inter-Varsity chess and keen observers of the Oxford and Cambridge match last Monday declare that the all-round quality of the play shows steady and sure improvement. Indeed, one of the most hopeful signs for the future of British chess is the excellent form of the combined teams in their matches with the leading London clubs. It is interesting to recall the ecstatic enthusiasm of Steinitz when the inter-Varsity match was first instituted. In that aggressive way which all admired he did not hesitate to declare that the University chess match would compete with the Boat race itself in public interest, that crowds of people would anxiously wait about to catch a glimpse of those who were taking part in it, that professors would be appointed and that chess would become the national game. Fortunately these prognostications have proved cherished illusions. One can no more contemplate with equanimity a nation of chess-players than a nation of statesmen or trombonists. But inasmuch as according to the copybooks proficiency and excellency are always worth striving for the suggestion might well be considered as to engaging "coaches". "Book", with which most of the players are familiar, is very good in its way. The more subservient to book-play, however, one becomes, the more hampered is the imagination and the more burdensome is individuality. An able "coach" would do wonders in shaping the chess destinies of his pupils. Imagine Blackburne in daily contact with ardent chess students.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

### THE READING OF MODERN GIRLS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Londonderry House, Park Lane, 17 March 1905.

SIR,—Turning over some back numbers of the SATURDAY REVIEW (October and November 1904), I came across a very interesting correspondence about the reading of girls in the upper classes. Girls are divided into classes on this point because, I suppose, of the greater amount of leisure girls of the upper classes should have to cultivate their minds and tastes, though the reading of girls of every class should be a question of the deepest interest to all thinking people. Miss Longhurst protests against giving "Tom Jones" to girls of eighteen. I agree with her, though I concur with John Oliver Hobbes in thinking that "Tom Jones" would do a girl infinitely less harm than some of the dangerous insidious productions of the present day. I entirely agree with Mrs. Steel "that the necessity of either giving specifically or withholding specifically any book from either girls or boys is a confession of ineptitude on the part of those responsible for their education, the primary object of which is the unconscious formation of tastes and habits which will serve their acquirer in good stead when mere pupilage is over". As Miss Beale asks in the next number of the SATURDAY REVIEW (12 November 1904), what are we going to do to correct this evil of indiscriminate reading, or of no reading, in these days? She says that the average girl does not care for poetry and good prose, and further, which I believe to be the truth, that when a girl really cares for reading it is because the atmosphere of her home is favourable to it. One of your correspondents who signs herself "A Mother" seems pleased with the list of books her daughter had read. Every one of the books mentioned is excellent in itself, but read one after the other, as they have no connexion with one another, they would probably cause a sense of confusion in the girl's mind, and produce the effect upon it of a patchwork quilt. To my mind the worst of present-day habits is the reading of short paragraphs, mere snippets, the attempt to get information in tabloids such as extracts and résumés; reading books

about books, instead of the work itself, as if one should look at a map of a country and imagine one had travelled in it, and the skimming through of endless magazines and light novels. It seems almost hopeless to try to cope with the ephemeral flood of daily, weekly and monthly literature, most of it weak, washy and uninteresting.

At the risk of occupying too much of your valuable space, and of being considered old-fashioned and not up-to-date, I venture to append a list of books which I think is calculated to form a child's taste before the age of twelve years, and to throw out the suggestion that a girl's reading in her leisure hours should be in connexion with her studies, and that her education in literature should be on a proper system. I entirely agree with Mrs. Steel that the hours "between the dark and the daylight", given up in most homes to the children, should be partly devoted to the reading aloud of nursery classics such as fairy stories and small passages from good and interesting books, either biographies, letters and memoirs, selections of poetry or any other good works. A taste for reading to themselves and for choosing books must be cultivated as any other taste by making clear the difference between good and bad style. "A desire to know" is encouraged by the turning over and reading of good books.

Selection for girls before the age of twelve:—

Nursery Rhymes.  
Grimm's Fairy Stories.  
Hans Andersen's Fairy Stories.  
Struwwelpeter.  
Children's Golden Treasury.  
Babies' Classics.  
Miss Sewell's Children's Works.  
Miss Edgeworth's Children's Works.  
Captain Marryat's Works.  
Captain Mayne Reid's Works.  
Miss Yonge's Lances of Lynwood.  
" Prince and the Page.  
" The Little Duke.  
The Lambs' Tales from Shakespeare.  
Arabian Nights.  
Tom Brown's School Days.  
Uncle Tom's Cabin.  
Pilgrim's Progress.  
Swiss Family Robinson.  
Robinson Crusoe.  
Sir L. McClintock's Voyage of the Little Fox.  
Alice in Wonderland.  
Jungle Book, by Kipling.  
Self-Help, by Smiles.  
The Heroes, by Kingsley.

At a later age such a scheme of reading as this should interest a girl in literature:—

#### History:

Froude's History of England.  
Bishop Creighton's Queen Elizabeth.  
Life of Sir Francis Drake.  
Life of Sir Philip Sidney.  
Hakluyt Society Publications.  
Life of Sir Walter Raleigh.  
Life of Erasmus.  
A Life of Mary Queen of Scots.  
Miss Strickland's Lives of the Queens of England.

#### Novels:

Westward Ho!  
Scott's Novels bearing on the 16th century.

Also the letters and papers of the same date published by the Historical MSS. Commission. Taine's "English Literature" could be consulted as to the best poets who lived in this century.

Take, again, the history of the end of the eighteenth century and the beginning of the nineteenth century. It would be interesting to begin with:—

Lecky's History of the Eighteenth Century.  
Stanhope's Life of Pitt.



Early Life of Charles James Fox.  
 Fanny Burney's Letters and Memoirs.  
 Life of Marie Antoinette.  
 Life of Madame Roland.  
 Correspondence of Maria Theresa with Mercy-Argenteau.  
 Talleyrand's Memoirs.  
 Life of the Duke of Wellington.  
 Lady Westmoreland's Letters.  
 Life of Sir John Moore.  
 Life of Nelson.  
 Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin.  
 Lady Sarah Lennox's Correspondence.  
 Lady Hester Stanhope's Letters.  
 Carlyle's French Revolution.  
 Life of Napoleon.  
 Poets and essayists who wrote and lived between 1780 and 1820.

Reading in this way a girl becomes saturated with the subject; she breathes the atmosphere of the period she is reading about, and learns to take an interest in the lives of great men and women and realises the consequence of actions in real life; her judgment would be trained and her character formed by some such plan. I finish this lengthy letter with a list of authors with which I think every girl should be familiar.

Horace Walpole	Matthew Arnold
Lady Mary Wortley	Charles Lamb
Montagu	R. D. Blackmore
Miss Austen	Lord Beaconsfield
Miss Yonge	Charles Kingsley
Miss Sewell	R. L. Stevenson
Mrs. Gaskell	Goldsmith
Sir Walter Scott	Gibbon
Thackeray	Prescott
Lord Lytton	Madame de Sévigné
Dickens	G. Eliot
Lord Macaulay	and of course
Froude	Shakespeare
Carlyle	Milton
Ruskin	Tennyson
Charles Reade	

And every girl should read the following particular books:—

Boswell's Life of Johnson.  
 Smiles' Works.  
 Dr. Ball's Works on Astronomy.  
 Hugh Miller's Schools and Schoolmasters and Old Red Sandstone.  
 Ruskin's Sesame and Lilies.  
 Darwin's Works (if her teachers would permit it).

I think her education would not be complete without a general acquaintance with natural history, chemistry and astronomy.

I feel convinced that a girl, who had been helped and encouraged to cultivate her mind in the same way as in these days she is taught to exercise her body, would never be content afterwards to waste her time reading bad literature. These lists are by no means exhaustive and in such a scheme as I have indicated there is ample room for articles out of the best reviews of the day such as the "Quarterly" "Edinburgh" and "Blackwood", and the best novels.

The truth is that the whole of a girl's reading should be on a plan supervised, arranged and calculated to teach a girl to distinguish good from bad, to interest and amuse herself, and to be able to teach those who come after her to take pleasure in the glories of literature.

Yours truly,

THERESA LONDONDERRY.

## SKILLED EMPLOYMENT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

52 High Street, Whitechapel, E.  
 27 March, 1905.

SIR,—The question of promoting skill in employment among the young as a means of improving the condition of the working people is now receiving some attention. As it is possible that the work may be undertaken on a larger scale than has been done so far, one or two points arising from the experience of the Skilled Employment Sub-committee of the Whitechapel Charity Organisation Society may be of interest to your readers.

I would suggest that the need for this work lies less in the provision of large sums of money to be used in the payment of premiums by loan or grant than in the collection of information about trades, conditions of work and methods of learning, in finding openings suitable to the children in good trades, in superintending the arrangements for apprenticeship and afterwards in watching over the progress of the young people, but above all in urging parents to take the openings offered, and in asking district visitors, and those already in touch with the families, to use the influence which as friends they can have in the matter. It is the duty of parents to provide for the future of their children even at some considerable cost to themselves, and any scheme tending to undermine this sense of responsibility can render no true benefit to the working classes. It is our experience too that the system of premiums is dying out in many trades, and it would therefore be a mistake to maintain and encourage the demand for them and thus make it more and more difficult for those parents who cannot obtain such charitable assistance to place their children in good trades.

The influence on character is the most important point in this as in all other matters affecting the poor, and a want of care for and interest in the future of their children is one of the regrettable characteristics of many working-class parents to-day. Let us arouse this interest and encourage foresight, not by the offer of charitable grants but by the advice which wider knowledge can give. In this way we may assist in procuring an adequate industrial training for the young, and so rear a generation of efficient workers without injuring that spirit of independence and self-help which has so far characterised all working-class movements and to which the progress of the past is mainly due.

Yours faithfully,

H. WINEFRID JEVONS,

Hon. Sec. Skilled Employment Sub-Committee.

[We think this development of the C.O.S. is likely to be more useful than most of its proceedings, for it consists in doing something rather than in preventing others from doing something; but we could have spared the usual homily on self-help.—ED. S. R.]

## TOWARDS BETTER TEACHERS.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

S. Paul's School, West Kensington,  
 26 March, 1905.

SIR,—Mr. Garrod is general secretary of the Teachers' Guild. I note with something more than surprise the statement of this responsible official in your last issue that Primary school teachers find "a large majority of their pupils reared in homes which can do little to co-operate with the teachers in giving a true education—that is, character formation".

If this is true, then the sooner Providence wipes out the English race the better. Turkish family life would yield a better result.

But I am persuaded that the statement is a gross libel. Englishmen possessed "character" before ever "Primary school teachers" existed; and to-day the materfamilias in the working classes is a power for good far more potent than the teacher in the elementary school. I wonder that a member of my own profession

can venture on so impossible a statement as that of the "General Secretary of the Teachers' Guild".

I am, Sir, your obedient servant,

R. J. WALKER.

#### MR. ARNOLD-FORSTER'S STATEMENT.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

Dacre House, Victoria Street, London, S.W.  
30 March, 1905.

SIR,—The Secretary of State for War has made two extraordinary statements in the course of the debates on the Army Estimates this week which call for comment. On Tuesday Mr. Arnold-Forster repeated the fallacy, which has been more than once exposed, that an invading power which might be able to land 100,000 men after having defeated one of our squadrons, would not disembark a single soldier because it could blockade the whole coast of the United Kingdom and starve us out within six days. Theoretically such a blockade would appear to be impossible, for it implies that a hostile navy, necessarily greatly crippled in a victorious battle with our North Sea or Channel squadron would yet be able to blockade the whole coast of the United Kingdom, dotted as it is with excellent harbours and inlets, and prevent food reaching us from eager neutrals in all parts of the world. But as a matter of fact we have recently had theory put into practice, whereas the supposed invincibility of the British navy upon which the absolute impossibility of invasion is based can only be tested in a future war—unless the history of the Invincible Armada should supply some comment. For months a victorious fleet, possessing complete command of the seas in that part of the world closely blockaded Port Arthur, yet food, ammunition and clothing were constantly carried into the harbour by neutral vessels. Are we to believe that a few ships could blockade the whole coast of the United Kingdom when the Japanese navy was unable effectively to blockade one port? By all means let us hope that the British navy is now and for ever invincible, and that invasion is impossible. But do not let us trifle with facts and pretend that the nation can be relieved of its responsibilities for national defence by the fallacious plea that no enemy would, even if he could, ever land troops on these shores because it would be cheaper and easier to starve us out in a week.

In the course of Wednesday's debate Mr. Arnold-Forster denied the assertion of Sir John Colomb that the root difficulty of army reform is the supply of a sufficient number of sound recruits. This is a truly amazing statement in view of such facts as the following. Though the physical standard for the army was 5 ft 2 in. in height and 8 st. 3 lbs. in weight, 46,000 "men" were rejected last year because they failed to come up to this standard; and of those accepted another 45,000 were officially declared to be non-effective through death (4,000) disease (10,000) desertion (7,000) discharge for bad conduct (3,000) and imprisonment (22,000). If the standard of the army were a high one the enormous percentage of rejections on physical grounds would no doubt tend to show that we had more men than we needed. But when the standard is 2½ inches below the height and 15 lbs. below the weight of the average boy of seventeen, it is in itself the best proof that it is impossible to get the requisite number of men of decent physical and moral standard, though the wages of the soldier have been raised 66 per cent. during the last seven years. When we remember that the small test of the South African war strained our resources to the utmost, the statement that the difficulty of men is not at the root of the whole problem of army reform is one that leaves the hearer lost in amazement. An adequate supply of sound recruits is the bed-rock of the whole question, and until Ministers, Governments and the nation face it we shall be exposed to the gravest peril in the clash of war with any first-class Power.

I have the honour to be your obedient servant,  
GEORGE F. SHEE, Secretary,  
The National Service League.

#### REVIEWS.

##### MORE FROM MR. LEE'S NOTE-BOOKS.

"Great Englishmen of the Sixteenth Century." By Sidney Lee. London: Constable. 1904. 7s. 6d. net.

THE fascination of the sixteenth century for students of our literature would seem to be perennial, and indeed this latter-day Renaissance in the Renaissance proper is one of the most instructive movements of the last twenty years. Nor are the main reasons far to seek. At least one very powerful reason lies on the surface. The principles, methods and objects of scholarship in every department of human study have been fundamentally altered and restated and it was both inevitable and desirable that the literature and ideas of a century so rich and varied in its material should be re-examined and re-tested by the same modern apparatus of criticism as has been focussed on theology, economics, philosophy and political and social institutions. The scope and object of this modern critical scholarship as applied to literature are often, if not actually misstated, represented in a very incomplete and misleading way. The claim that it can justly urge to be "scientific" no doubt must partly rest on the delicacy, accuracy and impartiality of its tests and the knowledge of the inquirer; but the truly modern critical spirit in the scholarship and history of literature only regards this analytical laboratory work as an essential but very unsatisfactory preliminary. The meaning and message of the literature itself as an epoch in an ordered evolution in national growth is its ultimate object; and it is chiefly because that message can only be accurately interpreted, if at all, by the critic, whose critical apparatus is scientifically adequate, that such emphasis is laid on the necessity of perfecting the tools of the worker. A literature which has no message—and a message is not a sermon—a literature whose critical study can reap no fruitful harvest of knowledge and ideas for other ages and altered conditions can never appeal to any century or to any student worth the name. If the serious study of the sixteenth century promised only a quantitative analysis of forms, of metres, of structure, it would be the most sterile and contemptible of the ways of wasting time and brains to which pedantry can so easily fall a victim.

Mr. Lee who for many years has been a serious and scientific worker in the ample and inspiring fields of Tudor achievement is well aware of this. He may not believe that poetry is a criticism of life but he clearly does not regard it as an art divorced from life. His most recent book is the outcome of eight lectures given in America, and it embodies studies of six men unquestionably "representative of the highest culture of sixteenth-century England"—More, Sidney, Spenser, Raleigh, Bacon, and of course Shakespeare. Five of them he has already investigated in the Dictionary of National Biography and elsewhere, and he therefore comes to them fully equipped. With the sixth, Bacon, he breaks new ground. All the six have also an indisputable title to a student's attention. And as Mr. Lee's object is, we take it, primarily to illustrate and comment on the influence of the group of ideas and forces conveniently called the Renaissance on the intellectual spirit and ideals of our nation, no one will quarrel with him for preferring to do this by examining for himself the character, career, and work of half a dozen great men. As strongly contrasted types these fascinating figures offer an inexhaustible material, and Mr. Lee (besides furnishing preliminary bibliographies and a carefully compiled summary of the biographical facts) has prefixed to his more detailed studies an introductory essay in which he broadly chalks out beforehand what he understands to be the most important features of this intellectual movement of the century as a whole. This overture, as it were, is a welcome substitute for the lecture that it displaces on the uses of the Dictionary of National Biography. The Dictionary is of course a great achievement, but Mr. Lee is we hope beginning to see that we are all getting a little tired of being reminded of its last editor's share in its virtues. Sir Leslie Stephen



and Mr. Smith to whom it owed most allowed it to speak for itself. This being so, let us thank Mr. Lee for redeeming the opportunity of his American tour, by the moral that he draws twice (pp. 159 and 254) from American liberal enthusiasm for education. The mention of Bacon's "Atlantis" and the dream of the College of Science for "the enlarging of the bounds of human empire and the effecting of all things possible" in particular draw from him a weighty passage of contrast between England and America. "Nothing", we gladly transcribe the concluding words, "nothing in the current experiences of our country enables us to realise, even dimly, the scale on which wealth in America is appropriated to Bacon's great cause—the advancement of learning". We can only hope Mr. Lee will send a copy of his book with this passage marked and also a copy of "The New Atlantis" to Mr. Carnegie, if so be that he might grasp the difference between endowment of scientific research and the pauperisation of a nation's spirit by book-stores misnamed libraries and free.

As for the book itself it is exactly what Mr. Lee has taught us to expect from him. Indefatigable as a student, erudite and painstaking as he unquestionably is, careful and temperate as is almost every sentence that he pens, the essays have the power to interest rather from the disciplined knowledge of the writer than from the charm of the expression, or the ideas revealed by the critic. The theme of all these essays is inspiring, but Mr. Lee does not, we fear, inspire. It is not so much that we miss distinction of phrase, as distinction of thought. The ideas which flash from a great critic's brain when his mind is rubbing ceaselessly against the mind of the writer whose secret workings he is striving to penetrate—the ideas which reveal in a single glow all the dim recesses of what old Sir Thomas Browne called "the Areopagus and dark tribunal of our hearts", these to our regret we have not found in Mr. Lee's measured and restrained comments and exposition. The tragedy of More and Raleigh, the brief infelicity of Sidney, the bitterly won greatness and dramatic fall of Bacon—these as we follow them here leave us cold, far too cold. We have brought our great men and their works into our critical laboratory; the researcher is at our elbow, patient, impartial, trained, ready himself to learn, equally ready to teach; the instruments are just what the critical laboratory should have. And now the analysis is over. We have classified, ticketed and rearranged. That is More's place and this is Bacon's: Raleigh here if you please (you will mark the defect in this specimen, connected with his organic structure and his hereditary temperament as influenced by his environment): and now we will put Shakespeare into a little class by himself, and for these excellent reasons. The laboratory door is closed. We are greatly edified; we cordially join in a vote of thanks; but—we perhaps reflect on Reynolds and his remark with the snap of the fingers. "Admirable, yes, but it just wants that." Take the essay on Bacon for example. It is a little surprising that Mr. Lee does not mention Dean Church's monograph in his preliminary note, for surely it is the Dean at his best and that is saying a good deal; but with the exception of the American moral already alluded to, and some very just comments on what Mr. Lee elsewhere calls "the hallucination which would confuse the achievements of the one [Shakespeare] with those of the other [Bacon]" is there anything in Mr. Lee's pages which has not already been said before? We fully admit that perhaps there is nothing new to say; but that is only an imperative reason for re-saying the old so as to make it appear new. The art of setting the mind to reflect by means of the obvious, the known, even the hackneyed as a discovery of your own is an essential gift in the scholar who would also be a critic. And without it criticism is in serious danger of becoming not a tinkling of cymbals, but a mere shaking out of note-books.

From time to time Mr. Lee raises topics and problems full of interest and inviting to controversy. Is it quite the case for example that Leicester "was the most powerful figure in English public life"? Ought he to describe Cecil as Queen Elizabeth's

"Prime Minister"? We may note too in passing that he adopts the view that money in the sixteenth century had a purchasing power eight times greater than to-day. But is not this statement just a little startling and hardly consonant with the "wide literary knowledge and a finely balanced judgment" which we are very truly told above all are indispensable in Shakespearean criticism—"Study developed in Shakespeare an historic sense of a surer quality than that with which any professed historian has yet been gifted". Nor does it clinch the question to add that Cæsar and Brutus are "more alive" in the drama of "Julius Cæsar" than in the pages of Mommsen; which for one thing is not true. Richard I. and Louis XI. in Scott, Danton and Mirabeau in Carlyle are perhaps more "alive" than in the pages of Stubbs, Sorel, or Maitland, but that does not prove that judged by historical tests they are more true. And Mommsen would have given very short shrift and not merely on historical grounds to such a verdict as this: "No minor errors in detail destroy the historic vraisemblance of any of Shakespeare's dramatic pictures", nor does, we would earnestly contend, to deny "it" necessarily imply a belittling of Shakespeare's genius, as Mr. Lee would seem to infer. One more point, out of many. Is not Mr. Lee's treatment of More in the supreme crisis of his life a trifle unjust and unsympathetic? More we are told "laid down his life as a martyr to superstition and to the principle of authority (in its least rational form) in matters of religion". Now the cause which brought More to the scaffold was his deliberate refusal to take the oath abjuring the Pope, and to accept the Act of Supremacy with all that it involved. And his reason for refusing the latter was based on an intelligible position. He was perfectly ready to admit that the Crown in Parliament could alter the Succession, could legalise for the throne the illegitimate; but he declined to swear in substance that the marriage with Catherine was void, that Mary was illegitimate, that the divorce was theologically valid, and that Henry was Supreme Head of the Church of Christ. It would not be difficult to show "that by the principles of authority (in its least rational form)" punishment for a difference of opinion on a fundamental doctrine of belief was falsely masked under an arbitrarily created political treason. It is possible to hold that More in adhering to the faith in which he had lived all his life was theologically wrong and none the less to honour him as the victim of a judicial murder, and a victim to a "principle of authority" fully as dangerous, superstitious, and irrational as the most ultramontane errors with which he can be charged. The conquering cause pleased the gods and Henry VIII., the conquered, More. Yet one part of the principles for which he went to the scaffold with a jest on his lips has emerged triumphant. Space forbids our entering on several other points which Mr. Lee's wide knowledge has raised. May we briefly express a hope that his next book will give his readers as much of the fruits of his study as this one, but that it will contain no reference to the Dictionary of National Biography, and no reference to Shakespeare?

#### HISTORY-CHOPPING.

"The Coming of Parliament: England from 1350 to 1660." By L. Cecil Jane. London: Unwin. 1905. 5s.

IT has been difficult to follow with anything like reasonable assurance the exact development of the series of which this volume is the sixty-third. We could not perhaps expect that equal merit would distinguish every volume, and it has been England's misfortune always to fall to the inferior hands. The method adopted by the editors, for we presume that the writers are not responsible for the arrangement, has been to cut up our own history so as to give a false view of the whole. The title of the volume now under consideration is misleading and the author emphasises the error by "playing up to" the title.

The modern parliament is only the result of a long evolution but Mr. Jane tells us that "it was founded

by Edward I. and it is very doubtful if that monarch ever realised that he had given in England a new institution of very great value". What foundation is there for this statement of Edward's views? Has any man who set going grave constitutional changes fully realised where their progress would end? we greatly doubt however if Edward did not know and fully recognise the reform he had set on foot, so far as it could be recognised at the time. But the whole phraseology of the passage seems to us to be misleading. Edward did not invent parliament, as the Mikado established representative institutions in Japan, by a stroke of the pen. The real step of importance which he took must be found in the election of knights of the shire. He did not invent parliament as a whole and even knights of the shire had attended parliaments earlier than 1295. Possibly Simon de Montfort was the original genius who thought of an election of knights; at all events his knights were summoned by writs addressed to the sheriff. The system grew gradually, it did not leap full-grown from Edward's brain. We are told that to the great convocation held in 1273 to swear fealty to Edward there came archbishops and bishops, earls and barons, abbots and priors and from each shire four knights and from each city four citizens. It is not at all certain that the knights who attended parliament in 1275 were not elected.

Stubbs very truly says that in dealing with the age before 1295 we must be content to understand by the name of parliament all meetings of the National Council called together in the form that was usual at the particular time. If this be so and we want to understand how Edward's model parliament came into existence, we must follow the story to its sources. The author may know this, but his writings would not convey the fact accurately to the hasty and unlearned reader for whom, from their thin and superficial character, we are bound to assume these volumes are intended.

Parliament, it is needless to say, does not mean the House of Commons but it would be difficult to show that the writer of this book grasps that very elementary fact. Yet it is very necessary that it should be made clear to the reader, who knows little or nothing about the facts before he sits down to imbibe constitutional wisdom at the feet of Mr. Jane. He is too fond of statements that appear dangerously sweeping in character. He tells us that "the mere recognition of the authority of parliament [by Henry VIII.] prevents his Government from being called an absolute monarchy". Henry VIII. made use, it is true, of the parliamentary forms in order to have his decrees registered by a semblance of popular approval and sometimes because it was convenient to shift responsibility, but to say that these convenient concessions to tradition prevent our calling his government by its true name is to raise invidious questions as to who "we" may be. We should not hesitate to call the government of the Roman Emperors absolute although they claimed to hold much of their authority from the Senate and held senatorial offices and appealed to and feigned to consult the Senate far oftener and more thoroughly than Henry VIII. ever consulted parliament. In fact the sentence is nonsense and nothing else.

Surely too we might be spared such trivialities at this time of day as longwinded explanations that Roundheads and Cavaliers are not accurately portrayed as being "hypocritical, snivelling, and sneaking and mean" and "with long hair, well dressed, generous, &c., &c." respectively. True we are not clearly conscious how elementary this book may be intended to be, but there is surely a limit to assumption of readers' ignorance. A few pages further on the author makes the astonishing statement that "the royalist leaders were no generals". Until the advent of Cromwell to important posts, the Royalists had in Prince Rupert by far the best general on either side. Mr. Morley says with perfect truth that he was "one of the most formidable elements in the struggle", and military experts are still undecided as to whether he or Cromwell should have the credit of changing the tactics of cavalry on the field of battle, a change which consisted in running fire till the enemy's line was broken instead of firing first and charging afterwards. These matters are not

unimportant, but we have no space to pursue them further. The book is a poor, jejune, and not over accurate treatment of a wide and important subject. The author does not seem to have any idea how far back into our national life the roots of parliament strike, and when he has chosen his starting-point, he gives us but a sketchy story, not always very accurate, while half his book has nothing to do with parliament at all.

## TWO IRISHMEN.

"The Story of an Irishman." By Justin McCarthy. London: Chatto and Windus. 1904. 12s. net.

"The Reminiscences of an Irish Land Agent: being those of S. M. Hussey." Compiled by Home Gordon. London. Duckworth. 1904. 12s. 6d. net.

THE variety of Irish life is to those who take their knowledge from the printed or the spouted word one of the most bewildering features of what they believe to be a single problem. It seems inconceivable that, for instance, the twilight musings of Mr. Yeats, the brisk hilarity of the authors of "Experiences of an Irish R.M.", and the oratory of Mr. Redmond, should all be faithful if partial representations of current life in the same country. Englishmen, being mercifully devoid of the gift of introspection, never ask themselves what a stranger would make of the novels of Mr. Hardy, the speeches of Mr. Chamberlain, and a file of the "Sporting Times" taken together as a picture of England. Ireland, it is true, is a small country, wherein everybody either knows or imagines he has grounds for declining to know everybody else, but for reasons which it would be tedious to enumerate it presents an astonishing number of sharp-cut facets to the observer who hopes to find it a sheet of glass. Ireland is a crystal in which each gazer will read a picture of his own. No better illustration of the fact could be found than is afforded by the two books of recollections before us. Here are two Irishmen, both past the age of seventy, looking back on the same series of events, each speaking in manifest good faith of the things he saw, yet never for a moment does their vision coincide. Mr. McCarthy was for a time "the leader of the Irish race", through no fault of his own except a blameless character and wide popularity. Mr. Hussey (hale and hearty in his eighty-first year after more threats of murder than fall to the lot of an average American president) was a man "the miasma of whose breath", according to a Nationalist paper, "poisoned one-half of the kingdom of Kerry". Mr. McCarthy, for all his patriotism, has been a persistent absentee, and was in the House what on this side of the Channel is called a carpet-bagger, though in Nationalist Ireland it is the normal type of representative. Mr. Hussey has lived a long and useful life in Kerry, taking a prominent part in local affairs. The Parliamentarian has devoted his energies to obtaining benefits for the Irish people from the landlord or the taxpayer; the land-agent has quietly done much to improve the conditions of life of his poorer neighbours. And so one might go on until the ghost of Plutarch rose in protest. It is more profitable to turn to the actual contents of the two books.

Mr. McCarthy has largely discounted his autobiography by the publication of two volumes of "Reminiscences" in which he set down what he had to say of the most interesting men whom he knew. His new book is pleasant to read, but it contains little that will be of value to the student of political history. The author's modesty does not allow him to say very much of his numerous books, but his description of the difficulties presented by Parliamentary life to the busy writer will excite sympathy. It must have been very trying to receive orders to obstruct public business just as one was writing a love-scene. Literary work began for our author with newspaper reporting in Ireland during the years that followed the great famine, but he soon found employment in Liverpool, and then on the "Morning Star" in London, where he was in close contact with Bright and Cobden. After three years of journalism in the United States



he returned to London in 1871, became M.P. for Longford in 1879, had the distinction of being the first Roman Catholic member for Londonderry City, was forced into unwelcome prominence at the time of the Parnell split (when he was mobbed in his native town of Cork), and has finally retired from public life to enjoy a Civil List pension which no political opponent will grudge him. His "History of Our Own Times" has many of the faults of journalism, but it is impossible to view without respect the career of a man who, handicapped at the start financially and educationally, won a respectable place in public life by industry and character, and, living by his pen, never stooped to advocate a cause in which he did not believe. He remarks somewhat naively that on his entry into Parliament he had not acquired "much in the way of a practical and minute knowledge of the Irish land-tenure system". In that fact, however, lay much of his value to his party. When rich farmers were deliberately withholding rent and poor ones were moonlighting, Mr. McCarthy's sentimental conviction that it was all the landlords' fault expressed the crass ignorance of the average M.P. One could not imagine Mr. McCarthy cutting off the tail of the most Orange of cows, and since he approved of the Land League it was clear that that body was unfairly maligned. There is a story of an officer who had sympathised with Butt's "Conservative Home Rule" politics and who, returning to Ireland some fifteen years later, was asked to stand as a Nationalist. He attended a few meetings and was horror-struck. "You can't expect me", he said, "to go about shouting 'To hell with the Queen!'" "Of course not, my dear fellow", replied his would-be sponsor, "we've got lots of boys to do that part of the work: we don't want you for that at all!" Mr. McCarthy's function was to impress English Liberals with the idea of the union of hearts, and he fulfilled it admirably. A few genuinely moderate men are sometimes of immense use to a revolutionary party. His aloofness from the practical side of Irish life came out when this believer in reconciliation refused to join Sir Horace Plunkett's "Round Table Conference" on Irish agriculture lest the shadow of legislative independence should be diminished. Perhaps because of this aloofness Mr. McCarthy regards the whole human race with an amiability which, though most creditable to his character, palls upon the reader. But this quality enables him to give a charming sketch of Cork during his youth, when the clarion of Young Ireland roused the enthusiasm and ambition of every clever boy.

Amiability is not too abundant in the recollections of Mr. Hussey, whom no one ever described as "a nice old gentleman for a tea-party", though many have known him as a brilliant raconteur at the dinner-table. His book is a mosaic of good Irish stories, and if some that he prints are not new, they very probably were when Mr. Hussey first told them. We cannot congratulate him on his editor: the book is loosely arranged and chaotic—as is perhaps inevitable in a reproduction of spoken reminiscences, but there are many slips which seem to show ignorance of Ireland, such as "superise" for "souperise" (i.e. pervert by gifts of soup), "Judge Keagh" for "Keogh", and "Clonbrook" for "Clonbrock". An O'Connell story is twice printed in full. The anecdotes, however, illustrate most vividly all kinds of phases of Irish character. We were especially taken by the widow who, when her priest lent her a machine for spraying potatoes, "sprayed half the field to please his reverence, but left the rest to God!"

The Husseys were probably of Norman origin, and were established in Munster by the fourteenth century. They suffered confiscation under Elizabeth and Cromwell, sent members to the 1689 Parliament of James II. and survived the penal laws as Kerry landowners. Mr. Hussey's Roman Catholic father married a Protestant, and the children were brought up in the Established Church. A man of such antecedents, related to most of the other old Kerry families, is far from the imaginary land-agents and landlords ("Englishmen by birth and consequently aliens in heart, despots by instinct, absentees by inclination") of the Fenian press. At the same time it is not surprising that one who watched the land-war at close quarters,

seeing for himself the real nature of boycotting and the agrarian campaign, should express views which will grate upon the sentimentalist. Mr. Hussey certainly idealises the state of rural Ireland before the Land League, and his well-founded objections to the details of the land legislation blind him to the crying need of reform in the old land-system. The general reader will find too much about agrarian politics, but we commend to the attention of those who pretend to believe that legislation has done no injustice to Irish landlords certain facts and figures about the Colthurst estate. In 1850 the rental was "over £4,600", during the next thirty years the landlord spent £30,000 on improvements, and under the Land Act of 1881 the rent was reduced by the Land Commission to £3,600. We have of course no means of knowing whether the original rent was excessive, but it is clear that here the Land Act hit an improving landlord very hard. Mr. Hussey, as both landlord and agent, is naturally a partisan, but he has an unrivalled knowledge of Irish land, and the reader who disentangles his statements of fact (which are absolutely accurate) from the political invective in which he too often shrouds them will realise the amazingly unfair nature of the Gladstonian system which Land Purchase is gradually abolishing.

It is a pity that the volume should contain so much gossip about Lord-Lieutenants and the like, but Mr. Hussey's experiences before various Commissions are amusing. An attempt was made in 1884 to blow up his house with dynamite, but such trifles did not affect his spirits or his conduct, and he lived to be once more a popular figure in Kerry. The Edenburn outrage might have had horrible effects, but the intended victim turns cheerily from it to describe a bogus outrage concocted by a farmer to get rid of his mother-in-law, a dour Ulsterwoman who was deaf to such hints as "The North has fine air, would not a change back there get you your health?"

Underneath all these stories is a very close knowledge of the Munster peasantry, their codes of life and ways of thought. The oddly unsentimental view of marriage prevalent in the Irish farming class is excellently described. Mr. Hussey has genuine sympathy for his countrymen, in spite of his strong political views, and it is a pity that he has allowed a number of isolated utterances, which will be read by the unintelligent as wholesale denunciations of the Irish character, to stand in the text. The fact is that there was something very like a jacquerie in Kerry in the 'eighties, and the sheer brutality of many of the outrages condoned by popular opinion justifies strong speaking from an eye-witness. In spite of its haphazard nature, and occasional extravagances, the book is certainly the most entertaining record that has appeared since Mr. Le Fanu's "Seventy Years of Irish Life".

#### JAPANESE DEVELOPMENT.

"Dai Nippon." By Henry Dyer. London: Blackie. 1904. 12s. 6d. net.

THIS work is comprehensive in its scheme; there is hardly a subject connected with the material development of Japan which is not dealt with at greater or less length. Dr. Dyer went to Japan in 1873, as principal of an engineering college which was founded in that year. He remained ten years, and though his specific duties were as onerous and absorbing as they were ultimately successful, they did not prevent him from giving the abundant attention of a philosophic and cultured mind to the problems of national development which Japan presented to his gaze. His own personal experiences are too remote to be of more than historical value at the present day when the Japanese are no longer the schoolboys he knew, but fully grown men who have shown themselves to be possessed of the attributes of vigorous manhood. He has, however, liberally utilised everything that has been written in recent years by the most competent authorities and with very generous quotations from all of them has compiled a book, which we can unhesitatingly recommend as a clear, careful and concise description of present-day Japan, undisturbed by glaring inaccuracy.

To what the modern makers of Japan have already achieved we need not refer at any length. They have changed a country sunk in feudal anarchy, bankrupt in its finances, ignorant, impotent almost for its own defence, into a nation of unquestionable financial solvency, strong enough not only to take care of itself but to wage successfully an aggressive war against a great military power. "They have laid a solid foundation for national progress in a system of education which is very complete in every department; they have developed their railways, their shipping, their telegraphs, and other appliances of modern life to an astonishing extent; their industry and their commerce have made wonderful development, and the machinery of legislation and administration has been brought into line with those of European countries". Dr. Dyer describes how all these achievements have been brought about and from what they started. He exults without offensive arrogance in his own share in them. He was the founder of engineering science in Japan. His college was one of the most brilliantly successful of all educational institutions, and it is not only in railways and docks and similar direct products of engineering skill, that his pupils have rendered valuable service, but in the army and navy and in manufacturing industry. He deals not only with the past and present, but is bold enough to trespass on the realms of the future, and his views are marked by some elements of novelty.

A nation which, as Japan has done, increases her foreign trade within twenty years from less than forty to over six hundred million dollars and her export of fully manufactured goods from practically nothing to close on one hundred million dollars, has already set an example which, although it may not be intensified by an equal ratio of advance in the future, should before long exercise effect even on the conservative Chinese. But though Japan's military efficiency is unquestionable, we believe much has still to be done before she can attain the commercial supremacy in the Far East to which she aspires. A radical reformation must be effected in the character both of her traders and her workmen and in her industrial organisation and management. Her traders continue dishonest and untrustworthy in all transactions, her workmen incapable of continued and assiduous labour, addicted to frequent rests during their working hours, requiring almost equally frequent entire holidays. No reliance can be placed on any uniformity of standard in their work. Her factories are ill managed. Competent supervision of the workmen by capable overseers, discipline, economic division of labour, are elements lacking in nearly all, and the patriarchal spirit, which requires those who occupy responsible and influential positions to provide for all their relatives, produces an excessive number of employés in every department. Cheap labour, if due consideration is given to its quality, no longer exists. The former subservient docility of her workmen is being replaced by a vigorous assertion of the rights of labour. Wages, the cost of living, the standard of comfort, the price of coal have all largely risen within the last few years, and the commercial, if socially illegitimate, advantages Japan has heretofore enjoyed in these respects as compared with Western countries are steadily diminishing. We cannot therefore accept the current extravagant views of Japan's immediate future as a formidable industrial competitor with the West. But she has reached the limit of her agricultural capacity, and her ability to maintain her position as a great military power and to provide the expenditure necessary for it depends on the development of her manufacturing industry.

#### SEMIRAMIS OF THE NORTH.

"The Courtships of Catharine the Great." By Philip W. Sergeant. London: T. Werner Laurie. 1905. 10s. 6d. net.

IN his preface the author reminds us that the French writer M. C. de la Rivière classes Frederick of Prussia, Maria Theresa and Catharine the Great, with "King Voltaire" as the real masters of the eighteenth

century, which has also been styled "the most human century". We must form our judgment therefore of the character and life of Catharine II. in accordance with the manners, morals and politics of the period. The main obstacle to dealing fairly with Catharine's biography consists above all others in the difficulty of separating fiction from facts in the circumstances which must have largely helped to develop her nature and temperament for good or evil. Thus whilst, according to one author, her husband Peter III. was a monarch worthy to be loved, a prince full of goodness and humanity, others look upon him as an utter imbecile, a sot devoid of all manly qualities. Even his own aunt, the then reigning Empress Elizabeth, who held him in sufficient affection to choose him as her heir, could yet call him "my damned fool of a nephew". And it must be confessed that history in the main upholds this latter view. Catharine's character consequently can only be judged relatively according to the general estimate formed of her husband and of the abnormal surroundings of her lifetime. Married at the age of mere childhood, a wife in name only, she was isolated in a foreign land in the most corrupt Court in Europe, where intrigue was universal traditionally from Empress downward. Catharine's numerous love affairs naturally make the story of her reign a choice morsel for the delectation of readers of scandal. At the same time, and curiously enough, in viewing the history of Russia during her period, Catharine the lover dwindles into a secondary place beside Catharine the clever stateswoman and astute politician. Her choice of favourites was guided more by the exigencies of her fixed policy than by the dictates of her affections. Extremely interesting and pleasant reading as are Mr. Sergeant's pages he has perhaps omitted to give sufficient prominence to this notable fact. As he remarks, the territorial gains to Russia in Catharine's thirty-four years' reign were three times more than the size of the British Isles. She found Russia a nation of twenty-three millions with little voice in the affairs of the continent, and left behind her a nation of nearly forty millions and a position almost of arbiter in Europe. She was certainly aided in this by the men whom she chose as her lovers, most of them distinguished generals and builders of empire. The excellent lithograph frontispiece portrait of Catharine II. considerably enhances the value of this volume.

#### NOVELS.

"The Vicissitudes of Evangeline." By Elinor Glyn. London: Duckworth. 1905. 6s.

Mrs. Glyn's work affects different people differently, who are equally conversant with the life which she sets herself to depict. Thus her "Visits of Elizabeth"—the volume by which she made her name—struck some experienced readers as highly offensive and vulgar, whilst others were struck merely by its humour and the quickness of observation displayed in it, and, in accordance with a general rule, those who found matter of offence in it, were blinded by their outraged tastes, to its real and peculiar merits. The main ground of exception taken to this volume was the tendency which it exhibited to identify society generally with the habitual breaking of as many commandments as possible, or rather one as often as possible. This, said her adverse critics—and there were many among them whose worldly wisdom she would herself respect—gives a totally wrong impression of society taken as a whole, and suggests an acquaintance with it made less through personal contact than through a study of the reports of divorce-cases, and the gossip of social newspapers. With this last criticism we cannot ourselves agree; for Mrs. Glyn's pictures of life are evidently those of a close personal observer. We agree, however, with her censors, that she was, in her first volume, tempted to look for her models in too limited a field. It is no sign of any real acquaintance with society to be too much occupied with one particular section of it. But these observations apply principally to her first volume; they apply less to her second; they apply least to her third. In "The Reflections of Ambrosine" fairly well-



conducted people began to exhibit themselves as wearers of eminently well-made clothes; and in "The Vicissitudes of Evangeline" the balance between vice and virtue may be called very nearly normal. The only fault which, as a matter of general treatment, we are inclined to find with the writer in respect of her present volume, is one which she shares with not a few of her sex—that is to say, an undue passion for dukes. Novelists are apt to forget that dukes, except for the few young ladies who happen to have a chance of marrying those that are marriageable, are far more important personages outside society than in it. The most elegant social landscape may be quite complete without one; and since the whole British Empire can only produce some twenty, if every young lady in a novel is to have one for a husband, Mrs. Humphry Ward and Mrs. Glyn will, before they have done, have married all the dukes in existence three or four times over.

Mrs. Glyn, however, may be reassured. We may say of her novels what cannot be said of many, that they have the peculiar charm of an engaging feminine personality, which almost disarms criticism even in the act of provoking it. If to her books some female errors fall, her pages seem to smile at us, and the female errors are forgotten. Her merits, indeed, are not only pleasanter, but are easier to describe than her defects; and in the present volume they exhibit themselves at their best. They consist, principally, of a quick, humorous, and singularly shrewd observation, and a style admirably adapted to reproduce her impressions, a style which has all the qualities of an agreeable voice speaking. There is hardly a page in this book which is not fresh with the breath of realities actually observed; and she not only makes the reader conscious of her own voice in the narrative, but she makes him hear also the voices of most of her characters, with every little typical nuance of tone, manner, and phraseology. In order to understand her full merit in this respect, let the reader turn from Mrs. Glyn's smart ladies and gentlemen to those, we will not say of Miss Corelli, who are mere monstrosities, but of many novelists who are really familiar with the world—such, for instance, as Whyte Melville—and he will see the difference. Whyte Melville knew his world thoroughly, a great deal better probably than Mrs. Glyn knows hers; but he did not possess the rare faculty possessed by her of making her characters actually audible personages. On the whole, Mrs. Glyn's gifts seem to us greater than the uses to which she has thus far put them.

**"His Island Princess."** By W. Clark Russell. London: Methuen. 1905. 6s.

Mr. Clark Russell's latest novel is in his more vigorous manner and should please his admirers, although the characters and incidents are of a type that he has made familiar, while the grammar is occasionally at fault. His hero (a tiresome youth to our thinking) sails as mate in a convict ship belonging to the fleet of Commodore Phillip, of Botany Bay fame. Kidnapped on the high seas by an American whaler, he suffers shipwreck and drifts to a South Sea island, where he is welcomed by an amiable Scottish lunatic and his lovely daughter, the sole inhabitants. The heroine's father believes himself rightful sovereign of the United Kingdom: hence the book's title. The lady bears a family likeness to the heroine of Mr. Whiteing's "The Island", and merits a more interesting husband and a less disastrous end than Mr. Clark Russell allots her. We leave the hero in Valparaiso, about to undergo further adventures which "five times the length of this tale would not contain". The sanctimonious American kidnapper is the most interesting person in the book, but unhappily he is stabbed prematurely.

**"A Dog's Tale."** By Mark Twain. London and New York: Harper. 1905. 2s. net.

Mark Twain has spoiled the effect of a story designed to protest against scientific cruelty by very tedious and pointless jocularities at the outset. The dog's mother learns long words from human beings and repeats them to impress other dogs: "She would say, as calm as a

summer's day, 'It's synonymous with supererogation', or some godless long reptile of a word like that." Thus we get very tired of the canine autobiographer before the pathetic stop is pressed. It is difficult to accept a man of science who, when his pet dog had rescued his child from a fire, would vivisect its puppy in its presence, and it is to be regretted that a lover of dogs should spoil his plea on their behalf by such unreal devices. Mr. Smedley's four illustrations show more understanding of dogs than is to be found in the text, which will appeal only to confirmed sentimentalists.

**"Eve and the Law."** By Alice and Claude Askew. London: Chapman and Hall. 1905. 6s.

"It occurred to Eve as she spoke that her words recalled a melodrama she had once sat and almost laughed through. She realised now that she had been wrong to want to laugh. The stalls sometimes hold life to be an amusing and polished comedy; in reality it is hot melodrama." With the frank avowal of the last sentence possibly some of us may hesitate to agree: but hesitation is foreign to the authors of "Eve and the Law", who at least have the courage of their convictions. Only, if life is hot, "Eve and the Law" is positively boiling; and that is perhaps the reason why it is so exceedingly unlike that which it is intended to portray. The initial episode, wherein an English girl who has made a stolen match with a Frenchman is deserted by her husband during the honeymoon, is credible. Celebrated in England, the marriage did not hold good in France, and some Frenchmen are scoundrels. But the succeeding events are entirely preposterous and can only be recommended to those who feel no qualms in swallowing the "hot-melodrama" theory. Other people will do well to let the book alone.

#### NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

**"Italian Villas and their Gardens."** By Edith Wharton. With Pictures by Maxfield Parrish. London: Lane. 1904. 21s. net.

Mrs. Wharton writes of Italian villas with restraint and judgment. Her severe concentration leaves the writer free to insist the more on the distinctive feature of Italian gardening of the better age, namely the exquisite adaptation of its design not only to the architecture of the villa, but to the features of the landscape in which it was set, simple, if the outlook called the eye away, intricate with complex groupings of portico and fountain where the view was unimpressive, as at Lante, most beautiful of pleasure grounds, known happily to few among the crowds of tourists who would vulgarise it did they see its loveliness. Mrs. Wharton has made a permanent addition to the literature of the subject. If she is less learned than Gurlitt, or Tuckerman, she is far more readable. Her judgment is sound and her taste mature. It is somewhat to be regretted that her aloofness from what is widely known restrains her from describing more fully the chef-d'œuvre of Vignola, the important villa of Caprarola—"the work of one" says Gurlitt, who tore himself loose from the tradition of Italian palace architecture. Caprarola is indeed one of the most interesting spots in Italy. Burckhardt thought the house "perhaps the highest example of restrained majesty which secular architecture has achieved". It is true, as Mrs. Wharton says, that much has been written of Caprarola, but not in works accessible to those into whose hands this book will fall. Moreover, it would not have been out of place to give some description of the internal decorations by Zuccherro, with their wealth of Farnese portraits, concerning which Vasari waxed so eloquent in his prolix way. Mrs. Wharton has cast her net widely, and written of villas in many provinces of Italy. She scarcely travels south of Rome. The gardens of Posilipo do not attract her, and the wonderful Moorish villa at Ravello is unmentioned, while the late Renaissance work of Fontana and Tebaldi is lovingly described. Mrs. Wharton is fortunate in her illustrator; and Mr. Maxfield Parrish's drawings are deserving of a full measure of credit in the production of a beautiful and valuable book.

**"Historical Mysteries."** By Andrew Lang. London: Smith, Elder. 1904. 9s. net.

Mr. Lang's facile and cultured pen makes all subjects attractive, even the well-worn themes he has dealt with here; but, though they were doubtless well conceived as magazine articles, we fail to see sufficient justification for their reappearance in the form of a book. Surely "The Cardinal's Necklace" and "The Chevalier d'Eon" have been explained away ad nauseam. And

who at this time of day wants to hear any more about the Comte de S. Germain? We must be thankful to be spared further investigations into the career of the Man in the Iron Mask or the authorship of "Junius' Letters". It is not easy to understand why many of these tales are called "Historical Mysteries", a title which seems to imply a connexion with political events of importance. The mystery of the diamond necklace, no longer a mystery at all, has of course a very close connexion with affairs of real moment, but the same cannot be said for Elizabeth Canning and Douglas Home and their adventures. The real mysteries of history must be sought for in the obscure causes which influenced great events.

**"A Vagabond in Asia." By Edmund Candler. New Edition. London: Greening. 1905. 5s.**

The first edition of this book appeared in 1899. Mr. Candler's record of travel off the beaten track in Burma, Siam, and the Shan States is an entertaining account of the course taken by an attack of the "reiselust or go-fever" to which all vagabonds are subject. In Siam he was fortunate in being able to move about with a letter of introduction from Prince Damrong himself. Mr. Candler has always had a leaning for Asiatic adventure. He was among the journalists who accompanied Colonel Younghusband's mission to Lhasa.

Twenty-three Oxford tutors and lecturers in modern history have written and printed a Letter to the Regius Professor commenting on his inaugural lecture. (Oxford: Baxter's Press. 1905. 6d.) We referred to this lecture at the time it was published. It was a piece of work which produced by a great historian would have added to his enduring reputation. So, clearly think Mr. Firth's friends and colleagues at Oxford. They are at quite acute pains to explain to him how much they admire their Regius Professor, and how glad they were to welcome him to the chair of Stubbs, Freeman, and Froude. They might seem to admire too much, were it not for the dry criticism, the really practical point of the Letter, which these careful but sincere compliments perforce lead on to. The tutors and lecturers feel that the Regius Professor unintentionally did them an indifferent turn when he dwelt on the inefficiency of the Oxford Honour Schools in the work of developing historians as distinct from students of history. They demur to his statement that the class lists of the last twenty years contain few names of men who have published historical work, and furnish an appendix giving the names of a number of writers on history who did take history for their finals. We are not profoundly impressed by some of the names on this list. Still in this and one or two other matters Mr. Firth did seem to us to overlook somewhat the fine work, outside the domain of original research and the writing of history, which the History school has achieved. It was a defect in a paper of singular attraction and strength. The Oxford tutors and lecturers have right on their side. We should be surprised to hear that Professor Firth did not now take the same view.

We have received the "Eton Calendar for 1905" (Spottiswoode. 2s.) We have come across no calendar of its sort so well edited and indexed.

#### BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCHES.

**"Notes from a Diary." By Sir Mountstuart E. Grant Duff. 2 vols. London: Murray. 1905. 18s.**

Nothing is left to be said of Sir Grant Duff's Diary except that it is ended. The two volumes cover the years from 1896 to 1901: the rest is silence. Scarcely a detail of the common conversation is omitted; and how terribly soon after all these little gatherings, generally at meals, the notebook must have come out. After reading of stories, sayings, little criticisms of ephemeral books, it comes on one with a delightful surprise to find now and again that the autobiographer let himself go on a visit to Kew or a single beautiful plant. Less of the notebook and more of the observer would have made a better book.

**"The Life Story of Charlotte de Trémoille." By Mary C. Rowsell. London: Kegan Paul. 1905. 6s.**

Speaking roughly people who publish lives trust either that the fame of the hero of the story will atone for their own literary insufficiency or that their own piety and worthiness will be taken as compensation for the poverty of their subject. The story of the Countess of Derby ought to carry anyone through, and her biographer has a very sound view of some of the most important questions of the time. The estimate of Laud and Charles I. is excellent. The quotations from letters and contemporary documents are well selected, but the book is hardly a serious biography; and the style abounds in banal phrase. The "romantic story stands enshrined in England's historic annals" is an example of the grand and "the above enumerated comestibles" of the humorous style. What we most missed in the matter of the book was any full inquiry into the part played by William Christian in the Isle of Man. The subject needs research. Scott, who is not alluded to, so perverted the history of the period—making the Countess of Derby a Roman

Catholic and giving a perverted view of Christian—that a true picture of this slighted incident in the Countess' life history would have been doubly valuable.

**"Life of Thomas Arnold." By Arthur Penrhyn Stanley. London: Murray. 1904. 2s. 6d.**

This is a popular edition of the well-known Life by Dean Stanley, which in the course of sixty years since it appeared in 1844 has passed through many editions. It contains the introduction to the Teachers' Edition, written by Sir Joshua Fitch in 1901, the author's preface to the original edition, and his preface to the twelfth edition in 1881. We may remark of this latter preface that it overrates "Tom Brown's School-days" as a picture of Arnold. That famous book shows Arnold as a strong master whom the boys first feared and then loved, but it contains no description of his methods or his ideas that can in any way compare with this biography of Stanley's. Probably as the copyright is about to expire or has expired, there may be other reprints, but they will be very difficult to produce so well, if at all, at an equally low price. The pictures of Rugby are all capital, and all the illustrations are accurately produced.

**"Six Great Schoolmasters." By F. D. How. London: Methuen. 1905. 7s. 6d.**

The idea in lumping together these six schoolmasters, Hawtrey, Moberly, Kennedy, Vaughan, Temple and Bradley, is to show the remarkable revolution in education which began about 1835 and was chiefly influenced by those men. But the idea does not get much beyond the preface. The lives are detached and the little anecdotes that grew up round these schoolmasters are given as much place as their educational theories. But the lives independently taken show astonishing thoroughness in collection. We can, for example, recollect only one of Dr. Kennedy's facetiae, treasured in school oral tradition, which is not included in this brief Life. But the work would have been more valuable as six little books than one big book. The thesis is too slender.

**"William Bodham Donne and his Friends." By Catherine B. Johnson. London: Methuen. 1905. 10s. 6d.**

Is the great charm that her grandfather's personality exercised when he was alive sufficient reason for a granddaughter to try to recover it in a book on him? We hold not. It is true that Donne knew many interesting people: his cousin Cowper, FitzGerald, Archbishop Trench, Mrs. Fanny Kemble, and wrote to them and received from them many good letters. But how can anyone out of the family care for hundreds of closely printed pages of letters of a man whom they have scarcely heard of; and even Mrs. Kemble did not always put her soul into her letters. One desires "the great remedy" which in a very interesting letter FitzGerald wished he could apply to "David Copperfield"—"a pair of scissors".

**"Bygones Worth Remembering." 2 Vols. By G. J. Holyoake. London: Unwin. 1905. 21s.**

The presumption in the title is considerable, especially as Mr. Holyoake has put what presumably he thinks most worth remembering in his "Sixty Years of an Agitator's Life". One

(Continued on page 428.)

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volume would have been enough, and might have made a really good book. Mr. Holyoake has some real things to say, and it cannot be wholly uninteresting to hear of Mazzini, Garibaldi, Herbert Spencer, Mill and not least Harriet Martineau, from one who knew them well. But the incidental literary criticism might generally have been spared. Nevertheless, it is pleasant to see, apart from the merits of the book as a book, that Mr. Holyoake as he approaches ninety has still the exuberant vitality to do such work. It is virile even when too long-winded, and nearly always interesting.

"A Belle of the Fifties." By Ada Sterling. London: Heinemann. 1905. 10s. 6d.

It is well to plunge into things. "The Memoirs of Mrs. Clay, of Alabama, by which title Mrs. Clement C. Clay, jun. (now Mrs. Clay Clopton) was known during the period comprised by 1850-87, &c."—is the first sentence of the preface. The subject of the book seems not to be of great intrinsic interest, although the biographer has come upon no one "whose belle-ship has been so long sustained or whose magnetism and compelling fascinations have swayed often so universally". No doubt she was one of those women round whom events of national history may be made to group themselves pleasantly enough; but not everything she did is of interest. A good half of this very ponderous book might have been cut with every advantage. We really are not interested to know that a New York fashionable dentist could not bear the smell of a geranium.

"John Bunyan." By the Author of "Mark Rutherford." London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1905. 3s. 6d.

There is more excuse for such a Life as this, though many Lives exist, than for many authors. But the idea, suggested in the conjunction of the title with the authorship, prevails, in this as in other "literary lives", that the writer of the Life is recreating the great man he writes of. This multiplication of lives is encouraging a sciolist public to read about men and not the men's works. However some of the criticism is good and we are glad to see that Bunyan's humour is acknowledged and his work other than the "Pilgrim's Progress" recommended.

"Jeremy Bentham." By C. M. Atkinson. London: Methuen. 1905. 5s.

The same excuse may be extended to this Life. Bentham is much neglected and is a writer to whom more than most even a student needs a key. The Life is framed principally to encourage the study of Bentham's writings and the intention is the only justification for re-telling the quiet life of an author.

"Tracks of a Rolling Stone." By H. J. Coke. London: Smith, Elder. 1905. 10s. 6d.

If biography is often bad, autobiography is usually worse. Such a book as this of amiable personal chatter about nothing in particular has no excuse for existence and can interest no one outside the circle of personal friends of the author. If it has its plums they are too much wrapped up to be penetrable by anyone who values his time spent in reading.

#### SOME FRENCH HANDBOOKS OF ART AND ART REVIEWS.

"Les Villes d'Art Célèbres: Versailles," par André Pératé; "Rouen," par Camille Enlart; "Strasbourg," par H. Welschinger. Paris: H. Laurens. 4 f. each.

"Les Grands Artistes: Donatello," par Arsène Alexandre; "Hogarth," par François Benoit; "Chardin," par Gaston Schefer; "La Tour," par Maurice Tournoux; "Fragonard," par Camille Maucclair; "Boucher," par Gustave Kahn. Paris: H. Laurens. 2 f. 50 each.

The two series, of which those named above have been sent to us, include other volumes which have either appeared or are in preparation. Those before us are commendable examples of what is now done for the general reader in the way of giving him in small compass competent history and criticism along with a number of illustrations. The series dealing with Cities is the larger in scale; the volumes are a small quarto of one hundred and fifty to two hundred pages and one hundred to one hundred and fifty illustrations. The Artist series is in small octavo volumes of one hundred and twenty-eight pages with twenty-four illustrations, and is published under the general direction of the well-known critic M. Roger Marx.

We may single out, from the first series, the "Versailles" of M. Pératé. The author is assistant curator at the château, is one of the first authorities on his subject, and has the gifts of order in exposition and readable style which distinguish French critical writing. In the case of Versailles the part of the town is small compared with that of the palace, and it is to the history of the buildings, the gardens and the treasures of the museum that the book is chiefly devoted. The story is an absorbing one, crossing, as it does, so much of the history of France, and reflecting its changes of dynasty and fashion. Louis XIII.'s more modest château was the first chapter in the story, and a bird's-eye view of it is given from a painting. The architects would fain have demolished it entirely when Louis XIV.'s colossal scheme was put in hand, but the King

stood out against this; and the scheme grew with this anomaly at its heart so far as unity of design is concerned, but to the advantage of historical charm. Under Louis XV. and XVI. additions and demolitions both enriched and marred the grand scheme of Louis XIV. The Revolution was comparatively merciful to the buildings, though the loss in furnishings was deplorable. Worse havoc was escaped under Napoleon; it is not generally known that he had a vast project for demolishing the gardens and replacing them with a panorama in masonry giving a vista of the cities he had conquered and the battles he had fought. Under the Republic there had been a beginning of a national museum at Versailles of an indiscriminate sort, combining natural history with art. Louis Philippe revived this idea, transforming the château into a museum of the "glories of France" and commissioning painters to execute a series of historical pictures that led up to an apotheosis of the house of Orleans. It has been the work of the present administration to sift the collections thus formed, and to fill up the blanks in the furnishing produced at the Revolution by drawing on the storehouses of the State. Versailles is now secure as a monument of what an all-powerful monarchy could achieve in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by an organisation of the arts.

The companion volumes on Rouen and Strasbourg have necessarily a greater variety of topics, though in each case there is the predominating cathedral. A good feature in the illustrations is the details of sculpture given. It would have been well to add some examples of stained glass from the churches of Rouen.

From the "Artist" series we may single out M. Tournoux' "La Tour" as being a less hackneyed subject than the rest. La Tour's life, up to the time of his conspicuous success, remains still at many points obscure, and it is a merit of the author's treatment that he distinguishes clearly between what is firmly established by documents and what is matter of anecdote. A curious part of the anecdotal history is the story that La Tour in early life worked in England, and returning to France set up as an English painter. We have seen oil-paintings which have been speculatively assigned to this period of his life, but there appears to be no certain proof of the story. The one quoted in this book as establishing the fact, the existence namely of a copy in pastel by La Tour of the Murillo of a Boy Drinking in the National Gallery, has no force unless it can be proved that the Murillo was in England in the seventeen-thirties. M. Tournoux asks what was its previous history? It apparently belonged to the collections of Lord Charles Townshend and Prince Talleyrand at one time, and it is quite likely that in La Tour's time the picture was in France and the copy made there. Among the illustrations some of the "preparations" or sketches are judiciously given, for these represent the force and vivacity of the draughtsman better than many of the overworked portraits. The "Voltaire", "Marie Fel", and "Madame Favart" are among the most brilliant of these sketches. The "Hogarth" is interesting as the work of a foreign critic dealing with an English artist, and is as good as anything on the appreciative, as distinguished from the biographic side that has been done on the subject in this country. It is a pity that so many of the illustrations are reproduced from prints instead of from pictures.

"Revue de l'Art Ancien et Moderne" (March). Mademoiselle Pillion concludes her account of the sculpture on the doorways of the cathedral of Rouen. The analysis of the illustrations to the story of Dives and Lazarus is extremely interesting, showing as it does how the Bible story was extended in the hands of the sculptor, with inventions of incident that anticipate the moral drama of Hogarth. M. Louis Gillet gives a first article on Menzel, a very witty piece of characterisation. M. Babelon, of the Bibliothèque Nationale, deals with the origins of the medal in France. The notice of Waltner, by Henri Bérardi, as one of the engravers of the twentieth century, is concluded. The example of his work given does not promise him a lasting place in that list.

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Where no allotment is made the deposit will be returned, and in the case of partial allotment the balance of the deposit will be applied towards the first instalment. Should there be a surplus after making that payment, such surplus will be refunded by cheque.

The dates on which the further payments will be required are as follows:—

On Tuesday, the 18th April, 1905,	so much as, when added to the deposit, will leave Seventy-five Pounds (Sterling) to be paid for each hundred pounds of Stock.
On Friday, the 10th May, 1905,	£25 per cent.
On Friday, the 16th June, 1905,	£25 per cent.
On Friday, the 14th July, 1905,	£25 per cent.

The instalments may be paid in full on, or after, the 18th April, 1905, under discount at the rate of £25 per cent. per annum.

In case of default in the payment of any instalment at its proper date, the deposit and the instalments previously paid will be liable to forfeiture.

Scrip Certificates to bearer, with Coupon attached for the dividend payable on the 5th July, 1905, will be issued in exchange for the provisional receipts.

As soon as these Scrip Certificates to bearer have been paid in full, they can be inscribed (i.e. converted) into Stock; or, they can be exchanged for Stock Certificates to bearer in denominations of £100, £500, and £1,000, without payment of any fee, provided such exchange is effected not later than the 1st September, 1905. Stock Certificates to bearer will have quarterly Coupons attached.

Stock may be converted into Stock Certificates to bearer, and Stock Certificates may be converted into Stock, at any time, on payment of the usual fees.

Tenders must be on printed forms, which may be obtained at the Bank of England, or at any of its Branches; at the Bank of Ireland; of Mr. Horace H. Scott, the Broker to the Secretary of State for India in Council (Messrs. R. Niswonger & Co.), 8 Finch Lane, London, E.C.; or of Messrs. Mullens, Marshall & Co., 4 Lombard Street, London, E.C.

BANK OF ENGLAND, 1st April, 1905.



# THE NATIONAL BANK OF SOUTH AFRICA, LTD.

## BALANCE SHEET, 31st December, 1904.

Dr.	LIABILITIES.	ASSETS.	On.
To Subscribed Capital—		By Cash in hand and with Bankers ...	£1,195,464 19 11
110,000 Shares of £10 each (fully paid) ...	£1,100,000 0 0	Remittances in Transit ...	194,569 14 4
Reserve Fund ...	120,000 0 0	Native Gold on hand and in transit ...	229,665 18 4
Notes in Circulation ...	271,956 0 0		£1,619,700 12 7
Amounts due to Customers on Deposit, Current, and other Accounts ...	6,068,044 2 4	Money at call and short notice against Securities ...	143,702 0 0
Drafts issued on Branches and Agents, outstanding at date ...	183,954 13 5	Investments in Consols, Treasury Bills, Transvaal Three per Cent. Guaranteed Stock, and Municipal and other Securities (including Securities deposited with the Transvaal Government) ...	731,387 12 0
Rebate of Discount ...	4,685 16 11	Bills of Exchange purchased and current at date ...	1,674,182 5 3
Bills Receivable on account of Customers ...	503,706 16 7	Bank Premises and other Properties in South Africa ...	246,680 6 8
Profit and Loss Account—		Bills discounted for and Advances to Customers ...	3,300,027 9 7
Balance undivided December 31, 1903 ...	£17,901 15 1	Bank Furniture and Fittings, Stationery and Stamps ...	49,909 17 9
Net Profit for year ended December 31, 1904 ...	103,067 16 1	Bills for Collection ...	503,706 16 7
	120,969 11 2	Capital Adjustment—	
Less Interim Dividend paid July 16, 1904 ...	44,000 0 0	For which 10,000 New Shares have been issued in lieu of Founders' Shares, right to cumulative dividends and Government's right to surplus profits, as per Resolution of Extraordinary General Meeting of March 22, 1899 ...	£98,000 0 0
	76,969 11 2	Less Amounts written off ...	36,000 0 0
			63,000 0 0
	£8,329,297 0 5		£8,329,297 0 5

## PROFIT AND LOSS ACCOUNT.

To Rebate on Bills not yet due ...	£4,665 16 11	By Gross Profits (including Balance £17,901 15s. 1d. brought forward from the year ending December 31, 1903), after deducting interest due on Fixed Deposits, Duty on Note Circulation, Appropriation to Bank Premises, Furniture and Fittings, and Stationery, and making provision for all losses and contingencies ...	£287,012 17 7
Expenditure, including Rent and Taxes, Salaries, Remuneration to Directors and Auditors, and all other Expenses at Head Office and Branches ...	161,377 9 6		£287,012 17 7
Balance carried forward ...	120,969 11 2		
	£287,012 17 7		

Examined and found correct according to the Head Office Books and the Certified Returns received from the Branches and Agencies of the Bank.

Preterita: February 10, 1905.

ROBT. BAIRIE, I.A.,  
JOHN DOUGALL, I.A., } Auditors.

## APPROPRIATION.

To Dividend of 8 per cent. ...	£88,000 0 0	By Balance of Profit and Loss Account ...	£120,969 11 2
(Of this the Interim Dividend paid on July 16, 1904, absorbed £44,000)			
Reserve Fund (making it £130,000) ...	10,000 0 0		
Capital Adjustment ...	10,000 0 0		
(Reducing the Balance of this Account to £50,000)			
Balance to be carried forward ...	12,969 11 2		
	£120,969 11 2		£120,969 11 2

# OCEAN ACCIDENT AND GUARANTEE.

THE annual general meeting of the Ocean Accident and Guarantee Corporation, Limited, was held on Wednesday, at the Institute of Chartered Accountants, Moorgate Place, E.C., under the presidency of Sir Thomas Hewitt, K.C., J.P. (Chairman of the Company).

The Assistant-Secretary (Mr. T. M. E. Armstrong) having read the notice convening the meeting and the report of the auditors,

The Chairman said he had no doubt they would all share the feeling that the report and accounts are not otherwise than satisfactory. Things at the present time are in a much better condition than they were last year, although last year, in its turn, showed a great improvement on the previous year. The troublous times have ceased, and I hope very shortly that we may see nothing but sunshine before us. In the first instance, your attention will be drawn, I think, to the amount of the premiums, less reinsurance and bonus to assured, £1,060,896. This, in comparison with the previous year, is a slight reduction, the premium income of last year being £1,101,000; but I think I have said in previous years that we regard that as no misfortune; it means much greater care in the consideration and selection of the risks that are offered to us. We are now, I think, taking up the position of being masters in the art of rejecting a risk if it is a bad one. All our officials, our branch managers, and every person connected with the corporation know well that they do not earn unmitigated praise from us by merely increasing the premium income. What we have got to do, as I think I have said before, is to get £1 of good business rather than 30s. of bad business. It is specially mentioned in the directors' report that during the year 1904 the board, pursuant to the intentions expressed last year, have settled and cleared off the books an abnormal number of permanent liability claims in the employers' liability department, one group alone having absorbed a sum of £104,403. The amount of compensation paid away during the year has thereby been considerably increased; but with the result that the amount required to be set aside for outstanding claims has been satisfactorily reduced. Now I have received letters from some of the shareholders—and I am always very glad to receive anything in the nature of criticism—and I observe that inquiry has been made in more than one quarter as to whether this £104,403 is a surprise to us. My answer to that is "No." I wish it particularly to go forth to the shareholders that that amount was provided for, and appeared in the accounts of the year 1903; in fact, the amount that has been paid away shows a saving—not a very large saving, but a saving—over the calculation or estimate we had made. Then there is a saving in the general expenses, which have gone down from £69,441 to £65,555; and in the expenses of management there is an increase from £162,738 to £166,759. I may say that this is a matter which has engaged the particular attention of the board, inasmuch as it is very important that we should not allow the expenses of management to increase so as to bear more than a fair proportion to the general premium income and the other figures in the profit and loss account. The increase, however, is really attributable to matters that we thoroughly understand.

The general result of the analysis of the accounts is that there is a balance of £75,379, and the question of the disposal of that had to be considered by the board. I need not remind you that two or three years ago we had more or less of a set-back, and had to take from the reserve fund a considerable sum of money. Having done that we do not feel—I, personally, am very strong on the point—that it is right or good housekeeping for us, the moment we turn the corner and find that a considerable balance is available, to put our hands into the money bags and increase the amount of the dividend by means of a bonus. I am very happy to say that we have received a very considerable number of communications from shareholders congratulating us on our backbone in that matter. You have to remember that the directors, when we had the bad year, manfully paid dividend of 15 per cent., which is not a bad dividend for any company to pay. We paid it, although the profits of the year did not really show that we could do it. There were various comments made to the effect that we were declaring a dividend which the profit-and-loss account did not show we had earned; but we knew what we were about. We kept the dividend at 15 per cent., and now, just in the same way to keep a level head, we do not propose to declare

a bonus this year. We have always to consider not only the shareholders, but the policy-holders. The latter, especially the large ones, who have large sums dependent on our financial position, closely scrutinise the manner in which our accounts are framed and the manner in which we deal with our funds. I think I said last year that our watchwords were safety and fairness. It is no use talking about our dividends simply as shareholders; we have to please the policy-holders also, and to steer a middle course which will satisfy the one and will not show too great profits that will lead the others to believe that they are not getting value for their policies. I have heard nothing except continued praise from every quarter regarding the accounts; everybody seems to be satisfied. I propose now to refer to one or two matters which are not only of public interest, but of interest to you as shareholders in this large company. You may have seen in the daily papers that the directors are promoting at the present time a Bill in Parliament—for shortness I may term it the Ocean Bill—to enable the company to do a class of business that hitherto it has done in a sort of halting and hesitating manner by reason of want of power, but which, we think, is likely to form a very considerable and safe class of business in the future. That our view is shared is manifest from the fact that a number of the banks and the old life insurance companies have, by reason of our Bill, I am afraid, woke up to the fact that we see a possibility of a good and safe investment, and they are following suit by obtaining from their shareholders power to do the same class of business. It may be advisable that I should explain the matter. At the present time a good many of us, I dare say, are pestered and troubled and anxious over private trusts. One's friends come and ask: "Won't you be my trustee?" This has gone on for centuries, and until the formation of joint-stock companies no one ever thought of any other mode of dealing with trusts; but when corporations took the place of private individuals, for the first time the possibility came before persons who were seeking trustees: "Why should not I appoint a corporation—it must be a prosperous and rich corporation—a trustee, instead of my brother-in-law, my father-in-law, or some intimate relation or friend?" Well, the law did not permit it. We came to the conclusion that we would apply to Parliament, following some other efforts that had been made in previous years by other companies, to get full power to act as executor, administrator, and trustee, in the fullest sense. The Bill has gone on up to the present time, and has met with very little opposition, and I have considerable hope—of course, it is not by any means a certainty—that we shall be able to steer our Parliamentary ship into a safe port. The next point I think it well to bring before you is the question of workmen's compensation, which, I can assure you, has been a bogey, a trouble, a worry, and an anxiety to every member of our board for some years. We conspired recently that we had landed ourselves in a position of security, with complete knowledge that we had got our statistics, and that we had been able to know exactly the ground on which we stood; and then came, as I dare say you have seen, a departmental commission for considering the question of workmen's compensation, and the agitation on the part of our friends the workmen, that the Act should be made much more embracing and much wider than it has hitherto been. Of course, this means that we have got to begin again if it passes, and we will have the same trouble still before us in regard to the new alterations as we had under the old system; but, on the other hand, you have a body of directors and a staff who, I think, are quite capable of dealing with that question. Talking about the employers' insurance department, in which we have always had considerable interest, I may say that, as promised, much greater care and selection of the risks have been adopted, and it has converted, so far as I can see, the loss which that department was the cause of some few years ago into the present profit, which, I think, shows that we have turned the corner. I will close my remarks by reminding you that the results achieved are not due to the individual efforts of the directors, but to the united efforts of a very able and efficient staff, to whom we are greatly indebted. I beg to move: "That the report and balance-sheet be adopted."

Votes of thanks to the Chairman, directors, and staff at home and abroad closed the proceedings.

# MESSRS. CONSTABLE'S LIST.

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Printed for the Proprietors by SPOTTISWOODE & CO. LTD., 5 New-street Square, E.C., and Published by REGINALD WEBSTER PAGE, at the Office, 33 Southampton Street, Strand, in the Parish of St. Paul, Covent Garden, in the County of London.—Saturday, 1 April, 1905.